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MODERN EUROPE,

A SCHOOL HISTORY.

By JOHN LORD, A.M.

A NEW EDITION, WITH THREE ADDITIONAL CHAPTERS, COMPREHENDING ALL THE LEADING EVENTS WHICH HAVE OCCURRED FROM THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA, IN 1815, TO THE PEACE OF VILLAFRANCA, IN 1859.

ALSO

COPIOUS QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

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LONDON:
SIMPKIN, MARSHALL, & CO., STATIONERS' HALL COURT;
HAMILTON, ADAMS, & CO., PATERNOSTER ROW.

1860.

223. c. 22.

[Entered at Stationers' Hall.]

J. & W. Rider, Printers, 14, Bartholomew Close, London.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

In writing this History I have attempted to furnish, for the use of schools and families, a connected narrative of what is most vital in the events of the last three hundred years, avoiding both minute details and elaborate disquisitions.

If, in accomplishing this object, I have avoided the defects of those dry compendiums which are too often used for want of living histories, and have succeeded in enforcing those great moral truths which History ought to teach, this little work will, I doubt not, meet with that degree of attention which it may be regarded as meriting, and which a life devoted to historical composition may not unreasonably claim.

J. L.

South Audley Street, London.

POSTSCRIPT TO THE NINTH THOUSAND.

The addition of three new chapters, completing the narrative to the Peace of Villafranca, will, it is hoped, render the History still more acceptable to Teachers, and be kindly accepted as an expression of gratitude for the favor with which the work has been received. The price of the book is unchanged.

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MODERN EUROPE.

CHAPTER I.

STATE OF EUROPEAN SOCIETY IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

THE period at which this history commences was one of the most extraordinary epochs in the annals of mankind. It was distinguished above all others by the characters and passions it developed, and by the brilliant contrast it presented to the ten centuries which had preceded it since the fall of the Roman empire. It was the commencement of a new era. It was the dawn of a glorious day of enterprise and experiment—the birth-period of great thoughts, and of unknown agencies—the spring-time of modern society, with all its wonderful inventions, refinements, literature, and arts. The second infancy of Europe had now passed away, and in vigorous, hopeful, inexperienced youth, the nations, as they merged into manhood, began to institute reforms, and to exercise energies, which had been gradually developing during the sluggish and sleepy ages that had witnessed the triumph of feudal and papal despotisms.

The fifteenth century a brilliant epoch.

And yet the time was not marked by any great political movement which united the energies, and stimulated the passions of the various Christian nations, like the Crusades of the Middle Ages. There was no general war, no common undertaking, no important confederation. There was not even any exciting contest between the spiritual and temporal powers, such as before had given dignity and grandeur to the

Ch. 1. heroic Hildebrand. But the Crusades had happily bequeathed their spirit of enterprise, without their fanatical zeal; while A. D. 1400 to 1500. the ambition and intellectual independence which had prompted Henry IV. of Germany to resist the encroachments of Gregory VII., were generally diffused amid the rising universities of Europe. The scholastic philosophy, which had for some centuries bound with logical fetters the intellect of Christendom, was also now turned to other uses; for as the youthful scholars whom the church sent to the universities learned the use of scholastic weapons, they wielded them, not against the people whom they were expected to enslave, but against their old masters; and the foundations of ecclesiastical despotism were thus assailed by those who were trained to be its supporters.

Kindling of intellectual life.

But the great feature of the age which preceded the Reformation was the quiet kindling of intellectual life, which took place simultaneously in the different countries of Europe, accompanied, as it always is, by the spirit of individual energy and enterprise. The period was eminently favourable to genius, though not adapted to those great combinations of associated strength on which the glory of the present age is based.

Philosophers and artists.

Philosophers, who delighted in bold and sublime speculations; poets, who gave the reins to the wildest flights of imagination; scholars, who were transported with the most enthusiastic admiration for the remains of classical antiquity; sculptors who rivalled, and painters who surpassed, the immortal artists of Greece and Rome, were born in these times. Travellers, merchants, navigators, and manufacturers, simultaneously appeared, astonished their countrymen by their adventures, and

Spirit of enterprise.

enriched their cities by their enterprise. All departments of art, science, and literature received a powerful impulse; great attainments were made; heroic deeds were done; dazzling hopes were formed. It was the age of romance, of dreams, of incipient reforms, of daring speculations.

Still more remarkably was it a period of disgust with the old forms and institutions of society; and, although ardent

inquirers dared not revile, or rebel against the long-established guides and rulers of the world, still there burned in secret an intense spirit of hostility and contempt. The existence of an anti-christian power was proclaimed; feudalism was suppressed in cities; and a revival was attempted of the republican glories of antiquity. In the Italian towns, popular liberty revived with the arts and literature of ancient Rome. Dante, Petrarch, Rienzi, Savanarola, Michael Angelo, in different ways sought to disperse the gloom and ignorance of the dark ages, while Marco Polo, a traveller of the thirteenth century, and Christopher Columbus turned the attention of mankind to new worlds and unknown sources of wealth and power. Architecture changed its character. The old Gothic edifice, so venerable and so majestic, gave place to new structures on Grecian models. Pagan Rome had, in the eyes of the great men of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, more attractions than Christian Rome, enriched by the contributions of the whole Catholic Church. Even popes aspired to be the restorers and patrons of arts and ideas which Gregory I. and the most celebrated of the fathers had spurned and condemned.

Birth of popular liberty.

Architectural changes.

To this period we refer the three most important discoveries of modern times—discoveries which have done more to revolutionize the thoughts and institutions of civilized nations, as well as to increase their material prosperity, than any events that have occurred in the whole history of mankind, with the exception alone of the establishment of Christianity.

The first in date, though not, perhaps, in importance, was the use of gunpowder on the field of battle.* This eventually changed the whole art of war, caused spears, and battle-axes, and defensive armour to be laid aside, rendered feudal fortresses useless, gave strength to masses of plebeian soldiers, and

Invention of gunpowder.

* King Edward the Third of England first made use of gunpowder at the battle of Cressy in 1346, although Roger Bacon, in a treatise written about the year 1280, notices its explosive character, and proposes to apply it to the destruction of armies.

Ch. 1. A. D. 1400 to 1500.

created the necessity for science in battle, as well as tactics and valour. It made success to depend more on mechanical forces than individual heroism, and took from war much of its chivalrous and romantic character. It consequently raised the importance of commercial nations, and gave them, in fortifications and ships of war, armed with thunderbolts and terrors more potent than the weapons of the fabled Olympian deities, better defences than the shields and helmets of aristocratic warriors. And yet gunpowder, though so dreadful a means of destruction, has lessened the chances, and mitigated the evils of war, and caused it to be more reluctantly undertaken than formerly.

Invention of printing.

The discovery of moveable types, ascribed to a German of Mentz, named Gutenberg, in 1441, and to Peter Schoeffer in 1444, was doubtless still more important in relation to the ultimate destinies of the human race. We can neither enlarge here on the immeasurable benefits which the art of printing has conferred upon mankind, nor upon the evils which the perversion of so noble an invention has occasioned. The change effected in the whole system of book-making; the amazing and indefinite diffusion of literature in all nations, and among all classes of people; the increased facilities for the circulation of the Scriptures in all languages, living and dead; the immense impulse given to human intelligence; the increase of popular education; and the countless varieties of intellectual pleasures which have been furnished to millions, are among the obvious and substantial blessings which this providential discovery has furnished, and promises to perpetuate through successive generations, to the human race.

Discovery of America.

And who can estimate the results of the third great discovery, the polarity of the magnet, especially in its application to the mariner's compass (1403), which led to the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus, in 1492? Who can predict the full growth of a new civilization in a continent once inhabited by ignorant and untutored savages —the new states and empires which will arise both in North

and South America—the new forms of social and civil life, destined to react on the nations of the old world, and to change the whole intellectual, material, and moral aspects of Christendom?

But not only did this discovery reveal a new world in the West, it also opened ancient empires in the East, bringing Japan and China, with all their adjacent islands and kingdoms, within the influence of Europeans, exhibiting new and boundless sources of material wealth, and ensuring ultimately the extension of civilization and Christianity to the utmost bounds of the earth.

In addition to these three noble discoveries, which are of sufficient importance to make any age an epoch, the period at which we are glancing was fruitful in a great variety of enterprises, and improvements in every department of life. Men of genius arose, who appear as prodigies even after the lapse of three centuries, and to whom, in some respects, the world has furnished no parallels.

Rise of men of genius.

To this new era we trace the rising importance of the commercial cities of Italy, to which the Crusades had given the first great impulse. Genoa, Pisa, Florence, Venice, had become new capitals, centres of wealth, refinement, and art. Their merchants were princes, and their palaces are still the admiration of all travellers. The marble staircases, the lofty stories, the gilded and painted ceilings, and the varied ornaments of those gorgeous palaces, are memorials of pride and power which have passed away, probably, for ever. The churches became enriched with the spoils of the Eastern world, as well as ornamented with the proudest monuments of modern art. Beautiful mosaics, exquisite paintings, costly marbles, precious stones, and vessels of silver and gold, in almost incredible profusion, were at once the glory and the shame of the ecclesiastical edifices of this period. The broken and prostrated statues and columns of antiquity were restored, and placed in public squares and buildings. Private houses became more comfortable, and glass windows and stone and

Progress of luxury.

Ch. 1. brick chimneys were introduced. Clocks were invented,* utensils of husbandry and cookery were improved, and linen and woollen manufactures supplanted the coarser fabrics of the dark ages. Music became more elaborate, and the present system of notation was generally introduced. Spices, silks, and drugs were imported from the East, and diffused among the Teutonic nations. A taste was created for luxury; and mercantile wealth assumed a new importance.

A. D. 1400 to 1500.

Sculpture and painting.

But the most wonderful development of genius was in sculpture and painting. The great masters of that time have never since been equalled. All travellers in Italy are astonished at the richness and variety of those glorious productions, upon which modern artists gaze with admiration and hopeless envy. Florence, Bologna, Venice, and Rome became seats of various schools, of which Michael Angelo,† the Caracci,‡ Titian,§ and Raphael‖ are among the most distinguished representatives. Pages might be filled with the names of men who will ever rank high in the catalogue of fame, and whose delineations, both of ideal loveliness and sensual beauty, defy imitation.

In the midst of these painters and sculptors, whose creations are, to this day, the chief attractions of the cities which gave them birth, rose the palaces of their patrons, containing all that was rare in the memorials of ancient civilization, and all that was choice in modern art. But grander than all these, and gradually towering above them, until it almost reached the colossal proportions and majestic altitude of the old Assyrian and Egyptian monuments, arose the Church of St. Peter,¶ far exceeding in magnificence the noblest Gothic cathedrals of mediæval Europe, and surpassing the most famous temples of antiquity, whether at Athens or Ephesus. This Christian church, built from the contributions of Chris-

St. Peter's Church at Rome.

* The first public clock was fixed at Bologna in the year 1356.

† Michael Angelo, 1474—1564. ‡ Caracci, 1555—1619.

§ Titian, 1480—1576. ‖ Raphael, 1483—1520.

¶ St. Peter's, commenced in 1506, was not completed until 1614.

tendom, and filled with all that was most precious in Italy, still one of the wonders of the world, remains, and will remain for centuries, the proudest monument of the age under review. Ch. 1. A. D. 1400 to 1500.

Not only was this period marked by a grand impulse given to art, material wealth, and commercial enterprise, but the intellectual horizon was illuminated by stars of extraordinary brilliancy and magnitude. Italy led the way in poetry and philosophy, as well as in the arts and liberty. The discovery of the Pandects of Justinian, at Amalfi (1416), led to the most celebrated school in Europe for teaching civil law, the professors of which, at Bologna, drew enthusiastic students from every country in Christendom. Dante* had already given to the world his "Divine Comedy," a masterpiece of poetic genius. Petrarch† (who also gave a great impulse to literature by his labours in collating and collecting manuscripts) had followed in his steps—unequalled as an "enthusiastic songster of ideal love." And Boccaccio,‡ delighting the age by his witty, though immoral stories, had created a class of literature which has found, in modern times, more admirers than it has been the fortune of any other kind to obtain. Discovery of the Pandects.

But though Italy was in advance of the rest of Europe in civilization, she had no monopoly of learning. Great men began to appear in Germany, France, Spain, Holland, and England, all of whom, in different ways, gave an impulse to thought. Chaucer§ had written his "Canterbury Tales," and Froissart‖ his "Chronicles." Reuchlin and Erasmus,¶ by their classical labours, were preparing the way for the study of the original Greek and Hebrew Scriptures. Wickliffe** had long before instituted doubts among his countrymen as to the infallibility of the pope, and had sowed the seeds of reformation. The mortal remains of Bernard†† and Abe- Poets and scholars.

* Dante, 1265—1321.
† Petrarch, 1304—1374.
‡ Boccaccio, 1313—1376.
§ Chaucer, 1328—1400.
‖ Froissart, 1337—1401.
¶ Erasmus, 1467—1536.
** Wickliffe, 1284—1324.
†† St. Bernard, 1091—1153.

Ch. 1. lard* were now but mouldering ashes beneath the Gothic monuments which described their deeds, but their genius still inspired the students in the University of Paris with an ardent desire of intellectual excellence; and the city on the banks of the Seine, though gay and voluptuous, was the resort of the ablest dialectitians of the schools. Throughout Europe the scholastic philosophy, in spite of its imperfections and absurdities, had raised up an inquisitive spirit, and led to profound reflections on the existence of God, on his attributes and will, on the nature of the soul, and on the faculties of the mind. It had trained workmen for the mighty labours in reform which were about to commence.

A. D. 1400 to 1500.

Remarkable, however, as were the men of genius which at this time appeared, they were indices of the strength and glory of the human understanding—which can never be wholly prostrated, and which has had its prodigies in all ages—rather than exponents of a widely diffused civilization. What we, in this age, understand by civilization is, not the mere progress of arts which existed in the highest perfection in the most degenerate days of Greece and Rome; not palaces, and temples, and statues; not the existence of poets and philosophers, however great; but the general recognition of those ideas, and the practice of those virtues, on which the moral strength of man is based. Hence a true Christian civilization takes cognizance of the moral health of nations, and measures progress by the enjoyment of political liberty, the possession of equal rights, the elevation of woman in the social scale, the diffusion of knowledge, and the extent of facility afforded to all for acquiring wealth, honour, and power.

Imperfect civilization of the fifteenth century.

Now, these grand elements of a true civilization, which scarcely existed in ancient times, and are not yet fully developed among the most favoured nations, were but feebly recognized, even at the beginning of the sixteenth century, although this period was the dawn of new hopes to mankind. In spite of great men and their immortal productions, the

* Abelard, 1079—1142.

masses of the people, in all the nations of Europe, were depressed by heavy burdens, enslaved by varied wrongs, and paralyzed by superstitious fears. They were credulous, ignorant, and poor; they had neither liberty, nor knowledge, nor ambition.

Among the various evils which oppressed and degraded the people, and made the darkness in which they lived more gloomy from contrast with the light which blazed from the genius of artists, scholars, and philosophers, may be mentioned two of especial prevalence and most baneful influence—the Feudal and Papal despotisms. These two evils, the one civil and social, the other religious and moral, covered, as with a funereal veil, all the habitations of the people, poisoned their purest joys, perverted their noblest labours, and destroyed their brightest hopes. They filled Europe with mourning, despondency, and moral desolation. They defaced the image of God, made a mockery of reason, annihilated human rights, and caused religion itself, in many instances, to be an instrument in degrading, rather than in elevating, the soul of man.

Great social and moral evils.

It is true that the feudal system had received a shock from the Crusades, from the rise of commercial cities, from the centralization of monarchical power, and from fortunate discoveries and inventions. It is true that vast feudal armies were now nearly useless; that many of the mutual obligations between a lord and his vassal were dispensed with; that the power of great nobles had signally declined; that kings had become the protectors of the people; and that the peasants were no longer bound, by feudal laws, to the soil on which they were born. Nevertheless, though the rigours of feudalism had been relaxed, its spirit remained in all its crushing force. Absurd social distinctions, which neither humanity nor enlightened reason sanctions, continued to be recognized. The plebeian peasant was still a plebeian by birth, and few circumstances could take away the sting which aggravated his inferior condition. He could not rise to sit in courts of justice, or command armies, or be the companion of gentlemen. Even

Influence of feudalism.

Ch. 1. bravery and talent scarcely allowed him to assume a subaltern position among officers in war, or among ladies in society. A. D. 1400 to 1500. Only in the church, or, if possessed of great talents, in the schools, could he rise to his proper rank, or feel his true dignity as a man. A mark was upon him; a mark that all the world could see, and which no art could efface; the mark that he belonged, by birth, to an ignoble class, and hence was to be deprived, and his children after him, of the rewards of honourable toil. Oppressed with the reality of this humiliating fact, disheartened by insults and wrongs, worn down by heavy burdens, and, perhaps, brutalized by long-continued privations, without hope of alleviation, sympathy, or support, he transmitted to his family his sentiments and his despair, making no effort to improve his condition. Thus generation after generation continued the toils and perpetuated the ideas of slavery, under the name of freedom.

Slow progress of society.

It could not, of course, be expected that the poor man of the fifteenth century, especially without the Gospel in his hands, could immediately rise from this ignoble state. He could not acquire, in a day, rights which had not yet been made known to him, or privileges which he had not yet learned to value. Neither sullen moroseness, nor impatience, nor revolutionary fury would, in that age, have availed. The steps to human liberty are at all times long, winding, and steep. The peasant of the fifteenth century was the descendant of the slave of the middle ages; and he, again, was the heir of the barbarism and anarchy which succeeded the fall of the Roman empire. He was at once the inheritor and the product of generations of misrule, ignorance, violence, and savage inhumanity. The oppression and toil he suffered were misfortunes for which even the haughty nobles, who profited by them, were not immediately responsible.

Difficulties attending the elevation of the poor.

But his sufferings and sorrows were nevertheless realities; and they were the great facts of that age. And yet it was not toils and struggles which made his condition so hard,—for humanity must bear these in all ages, and they often

develop the noblest qualities—the heroism of suffering as well as the heroism of acting,—but the great and sad feature in his condition was the *injustice* to which he was exposed. He was compelled to enlist in armies; he was obliged to submit to grievous and unequal taxes; he had no benefit of schools; he might have merit, but could not rise. The laws afforded him no protection: he was despised and rejected by the great; he was forced to hide his face in shame for misfortune which he could not help. Such was the social and civil condition of the people in Europe at the close of the fifteenth century. Ch. 1. A. D. 1400 to 1500.

The other great evil of the times was the religious despotism which the popes exercised in Europe; and which had been gradually increasing from the downfall of the old Roman empire. This subject is far too copious to be here enlarged upon. But allusion must at least be made to it. The papacy. Its corruption.

The characters of the popes themselves were not, perhaps, worse than what we might expect of absolute and irresponsible rulers, raised to power by accidents and cabals, in times of general ignorance and wickedness. They were no more depraved than contemporaneous monarchs; while some of them were examples of moderation and virtue. Others, however, were monsters, rivalling the ancient Roman emperors in sensuality and crime, and most of them lent the whole force of their position to perpetuate evils which good men lamented. But it is the system they embodied which is chiefly worthy of the attention of the historian. Men are everywhere infirm, and the great are peculiarly exposed to temptation. It is only when we think of the popes as the heads of the visible church that we are impressed by the apparent incongruity of their lives with their sacred calling, and feel disgust at their vices and follies. When we speak of them as temporal princes, and compare them with other monarchs, popular censures seem a little exaggerated. The peculiarity of the papal power was, that it embraced both the temporal and the spiritual. The popes were both ecclesiastics and absolute kings, aiming at equal Sovereignty in the state and in the Usurpation of the popes.

Ch. 1 church, and aspiring to the government of mankind in all their relations, whether political, social, or intellectual.

A. D. 1400 to 1500.

It is the extravagance of such a usurpation—the audacity of such claims—that fill us with indignation and amazement; claims to dominion which the divine Governor of the world never yet allowed to mortal man, under any circumstances whatever. Even among the Jews, the functions of the priest were separated from those of the ruler; nor among that nation was there ever found a Moses to encroach on the dignities of an Aaron. The pretensions of the popes were altogether unprecedented, and were maintained only by falsehood and fraud in a period of almost universal darkness and credulity.

At first, and in a low sense, useful.

It is possible that such a usurpation, if we stoop to take a worldly and apologetic view of it, may have been overruled for good in that miserable era when the nations of Europe were ignorant, ferocious, undisciplined, and divided. It may then have served as a restraint on turbulent kings and tumultuous barons, and may have discharged many of the functions of a useful central government. But when light began to dawn, the endurance of such a despotism filled the minds of thoughtful men with profound detestation.

Yet it was not easy to destroy it. It had grown with the corruptions of centuries. It was interlinked with all the institutions of society. It was supported by all the common ideas and sentiments of the people. It had captivated their imaginations and won their hearts. It had enlisted all the great interests of the world on its side. It was defended by the most imposing hierarchy which any age has seen, or the necessities of tyrants had ever raised up. All the superstitions, and cruelties, and acts of ten centuries had contributed to strengthen it. Yet, with all this, the popes, in order to retain the powers of both religious and secular monarchs, and especially to support the pomp of station and the demands of nephews and friends, were continually compelled to resort to the most disgraceful shifts and inventions.

Hard to destroy.

They encouraged idolatry, ever the vice and the weakness

of sensual and ignorant people. Christendom was filled with images of saints and martyrs, who, by their virtues, had once excited the veneration of past ages. Even their bones and relics were supposed to have a mysterious value, which was exaggerated by the priesthood, in order to secure contributions and alms. These were sold like articles of merchandise, and became abundantly lucrative. Though perhaps originally intended to stimulate devotion, they were now shamelessly perverted to selfish purposes, and served only to degrade the popular mind. Intercessions by favourite saints were regarded as of great efficacy in propitiating the Deity, and securing forgiveness of sins. Prayers to the Virgin were deemed of especial merit, and a mortal woman was raised by the superstitious enthusiasm of ignorant worshippers to the throne of the Eternal.

Relics and images.

The worship of God was in a language the people could not understand, yet rendered imposing by innumerable ceremonies which appealed to the senses. The gorgeous dresses of the priests, the rich altars, the precious vessels of silver and gold, the wax candles, and the exciting chants of the service, all diverted the minds of worshippers from the legitimate object of devotion, and made them forget their most obvious duties. Preaching was almost entirely neglected, except on great festivals, or on occasions when temporal interests were at stake. The sermons of the clergy were generally frivolous, and ill adapted to satisfy spiritual wants.

Imposing ceremonies.

In addition to all this, a vast number of superfluous ministers of religion were supported in idleness and pomp. There were continual additions made to the different orders of monks, who, pretending to superior sanctity, consumed the revenues of the people. They forged innumerable weapons of servitude, invented degrading legends, and stimulated a spirit of superstition. But as they were uniformly the most efficient allies and servants of the popes, they were encouraged and supported in their claims and impositions.

Monkish frauds.

Finally, in order to suppress inquiry and punish dissent

Ch. 1. A. D. 1400 to 1500. from prevailing customs, the popes resorted to tyrannical and cruel tribunals. The Inquisition was established, and the fires of persecution burned. The lights of the world were extinguished, and daring spirits were crushed. A dreadful spiritual despotism bound, in gloomy fetters, the souls and the bodies of men, so that all reform became attended with imminent danger, and good men were compelled to hold their peace, and hide their heads. The church looked with an evil eye on all intellectual independence, and on every effort to break the galley chains which kept the world in bondage. She was particularly hostile to the circulation of the Scriptures, and to every effort for the diffusion of light and knowledge. It was on popular ignorance that the throne of despotism was based, and therefore the whole energies of the hierarchy were employed in perpetuating what it should have been their glory and ambition to destroy.

Spirit of persecution.

Indulgences. Perhaps the grossest abomination which the popes encouraged was the doctrine that sins could be pardoned for money: hence the prevalence of indulgences, which were graduated to every form of iniquity of which conscience accused the transgressor. Proclamations were then made of years of jubilee, when plenary indulgence was promised to all who would make pilgrimage to Rome, and contribute to the necessities of popes. It was thus that the ecclesiastical monarch of Christendom, claiming infallibility and universal sovereignty, corrupted and enslaved his subjects.

At last these innumerable forms of usurpation and wickedness arrested the attention of mankind, and indignant reformers could no longer hold their peace. But they were uniformly unsuccessful, and generally perished as martyrs. John Huss,* Jerome of Prague,† and Savanarola‡ alike fell victims to the rage of spiritual tyrants. The light which the new spirit of the age had kindled revealed the absurdities of antiquated superstitions, but did not remove them. There

Unsuccessful reformers.

* John Huss, 1407—1415. † Jerome, 1408—1416.
‡ Savanarola 1452—1498.

was needed some peculiarly powerful genius, greatly assisted by circumstance and supported by Divine power, to declare the truth, and fight the battles of reform. The various influences of the fifteenth century prepared such a man, and Providence raised him up—a second Moses, born to deliver his brethren from bondage. The next chapter will present the experience and labours of Luther, the greatest champion of reform since the apostolic age. He may be regarded either as the author or as the product of the Reformation, for he was both; and it is equally philosophical and just to contemplate him in either light. He certainly was the master-spirit of the Reformation, and gave it its greatest impulse.

Ch. 1. A. D. 1400 to 1500.

As this great event, the Protestant Reformation, contributed more than any other in the history of Europe to disperse spiritual darkness, and to promote the welfare of society, it will be more fully treated than the narrow limits of this history may perhaps seem to warrant. Its influence, direct and indirect, in the promotion of liberty and learning, cannot be overrated. We may therefore well give our attention to its principle and developments, and especially to the men by whose genius and labours it was gradually accomplished.

The Reformation.

CHAPTER II.

MARTIN LUTHER AND HIS ASSOCIATES.

Ch. 2. A. D. 1483 to 1545.

Birth of Luther.

MARTIN LUTHER was born the 10th of November, 1483, at Eisleben, in Saxony. His father was a miner, of Mansfeldt, and his ancestors were peasants, who lived near the summit of the Thuringian Forest. His early years were spent in extreme poverty, and he earned his bread by singing hymns before the houses of the village. At the age of fifteen he went to Eisenach, to a high school, and at eighteen entered the University of Erfurt, where he made considerable progress in the sciences then usually taught, which, however, were confined chiefly to the scholastic philosophy. He did not know either Greek or Hebrew, but read the Bible in Latin. In 1505, he took his degree of Bachelor of Arts, and shortly after, his religious struggles commenced. He had witnessed a fearful tempest, which alarmed him, while on a visit at his father's house, and he was also much depressed by the death of an intimate friend.

His religious experience.

In that age, the serious and the melancholy generally sought monastic retreats, and Luther, thirsting after divine knowledge, and anxious to save his soul, resolved to forsake the world and become a monk. He entered an Augustinian monastery at Erfurt, soon after obtaining his first degree; but the duties and studies of monastic life did not give his troubled soul the repose he sought. His brethren encouraged his good works, his labours, fastings, austerities, self-lacerations, and all the various forms of self-expiation; still his perplexities and doubts remained. In this state of mind he was found by Staupitz, vicar-general of the order, who was

visiting Erfurt, in his tour of inspection, with a view to correct the bad morals of the monasteries. He sympathized with Luther in his religious feelings, treated him with great kindness, and recommended the reading of the Scriptures, and also the works of St. Augustine, whose theological views he himself had embraced. Although St. Augustine was a great authority in the Roman church, still his doctrines pertaining to personal salvation differed from those which were generally encouraged by the Roman Catholic divines. But Luther, deeply imbued with a religious spirit, found light, and repose, and joy, in the doctrine of justification by faith alone. This became more and more the great theological idea of his life. The firmness of his convictions on this point became extraordinary, and his spiritual gladness now equalled his former depression and anxiety. He was soon to find a sphere for the development of his views.

Augustinian theology.

The religious experiences of Luther, before he had any intention of attacking the corrupt institutions of the church, thus, providentially, became the first great step towards a general reform; and the doctrine of justification by faith, revealed to Luther as old and inspired truth, became the most powerful spiritual agency in the changes of the sixteenth century. Philosophically considered, it was the *first great idea* of the Reformation.

Luther was consecrated as a priest in 1507, and in 1508 he was invited by Frederic, Elector of Saxony, to become a professor in the new university which he had established at Wittemberg. He was now twenty-five years of age; and the fact that he should have been selected at that early age to teach dialectics, is a strong argument in favour of his attainments and genius.

Luther as professor and preacher.

He now began to apply himself to the study of Greek and Hebrew, and delivered lectures on biblical theology. His novel method, and great enthusiasm, attracted a crowd of students. But his sermons were even more striking than his lectures, and he was invited by the council of Wittemberg to

Ch. 2. be the preacher for the city. His eloquence, his learning, and his zeal, now attracted considerable attention, and the Elector himself visited Wittemberg to hear him preach.

A. D. 1512.

Visit to Rome.

In 1512 he was sent to Rome, and, while in Italy, obtained knowledge of the actual state both of the hierarchy, and of morals and religion. Julius II., a warlike pontiff, sat on the throne of St. Peter, and the "Eternal City" was the scene of folly, dissipation, and clerical extortion. Luther returned to Germany, completely disgusted with everything he had seen —the levity and frivolity of the clergy, and the ignorance and vices of the people. He was too earnest in his religious views and feelings to take much interest in works of art, or in the pleasures which occupied the attention of the Italians; so the impression of the general iniquity and corruption of Rome never passed away, and probably gave a new direction to his thoughts.

Luther as doctor.

On his return, he was made Doctor of Divinity, then a great distinction, and renewed his lectures in the university with great ardour. He gave a new impulse to the studies, and a new form to the opinions, of both professors and students. Lupinus and Carlstadt, his colleagues, became converts to his views. All within his sphere were controlled by his commanding genius and extraordinary force of character. He made war upon the schoolmen, and was peculiarly hostile to Thomas Aquinas, whom he accused of Pelagianism. He also attacked Aristotle, the great idol of the schools, and overwhelmed scholasticism with sarcasm and mockery.

Preaching of indulgences.

Such was the state of things when the preachers of indulgences, whom Leo X. had sent out to raise money for St. Peter's Church, arrived in the country round the Elbe. They had already spread over Germany, Switzerland, and France. All crimes were to be pardoned for money. Among the most remarkable of these traffickers was Tetzel, a Dominican monk, an apostolical commissioner, an inquisitor, and a bachelor of theology. Uniting great pretentions to sanctity, with actual profligacy, this man was at once eloquent and haughty,

audacious in his pretensions, and skilled in the art of inventing stories calculated to please the people. "Indulgences," said he, "are the most precious and sublime of God's gifts." "I would not exchange my privileges for those of St. Peter in heaven; for I have saved more souls with my indulgences, than he with his sermons." "There is no sin so great, that an indulgence cannot remit it: even repentance is not necessary: indulgences save not the living alone—they save the dead." "The very moment that the money clinks against the bottom of this chest, the soul escapes from purgatory and flies to heaven." "And do you know why our Lord distributes so rich a grace? The dilapidated Church of St. Peter and St. Paul is to be restored, which contains the bodies of those holy apostles, now trodden down, dishonoured, and polluted." Ch. 2. A. D. 1517.

Tetzel found but few sufficiently enlightened to resist him, and he obtained great sums from the credulous. The entire system excited Luther's intensest detestation, especially in view of the erroneous theological principles on which indulgences were based. But in the spirit of a great reformer, instead of wasting his strength in denouncing abuses which already excited general disgust among intelligent persons, he resolved to eradicate the root of the evil. This he conceived to be the doctrine of self-expiation, a doctrine which has entered into all false systems of religion in every age, flourishing alike among the Fakirs of India, the Sophists of Persia, the Stoics of Greece, the Pharisees of Judea, and the monks of the Middle Ages. Luther, with masterly learning and eloquence, showed the Pagan origin of this notion, and brought out clearly and logically the antagonistic doctrine of Christ's expiation, as the only deliverance from the grievous bondage of sin. This grand, positive, scriptural truth, he made the foundation and substance of the ninety-five propositions which he now affixed to the gates of the church of Wittemberg. The ninety-five propositions.

These celebrated propositions struck at the root both

Ch. 2. of scholastic absurdities, and of papal pretensions. The spirit which they breathed was bold, intrepid, and magnanimous. They electrified Germany, and gave a shock to the whole papal edifice. They had both a religious and a political bearing; religious, in reference to the grounds of justification, and political, in opening men's eyes to the unjust and ruinous extortions of Rome.

A. D. 1517.

The Elector of Saxony.

Among those who perceived and rejoiced at the political tendency of these propositions was the Elector of Saxony himself, the most powerful prince of the empire, who had long been vexed at the vast sums which had been drained from his subjects. Lamenting the corruptions of the church, and probably sympathizing with the theological opinions of Luther, he protected the bold professor, although he did not openly encourage him, or form an alliance with him. He let things take their course. Well did Frederic deserve the epithet of *Wise*.

Erasmus.

Erasmus also greatly rejoiced in the appearance of Luther's theses. The greatest scholar of his age, and the autocrat of letters, he had vigorously attacked, with polished sarcasm, the absurdities of the time, both in literature and morals. He now denounced the sins and follies of the monks, and spoke of the necessity of reform. His fascinating style and extensive erudition gave him great literary fame; and his critical edition of the New Testament, which he accompanied with a Latin translation, rendered great service to the reformers. But he was timid, and fond of popularity. So far as Luther opposed monkery and despotism, his sympathies were with him. But he did not desire any thorough reformation, and he always shunned danger and obloquy. Luther, therefore, much as he was gratified by his favour at first, soon learned to distrust him; and finally these two great men were unfriendly to each other.

His genius and character.

Melancthon, another prominent actor in the great drama about to be performed, was fourteen years younger than Luther. He had been educated under the auspices of the

celebrated Greek scholar Reuchlin. At twelve he was sent to the University of Heidelberg; at fourteen, was made Bachelor of Arts; and at seventeen, Doctor of Philosophy. He began to lecture publicly at the age of seventeen, and for his extraordinary attainments was invited to Wittemberg, as professor of ancient languages, at the age of twenty-one. He arrived there in 1518, and immediately fell under the influence of Luther, who at once acknowledged his superior classical attainments. He was, however, so remarkably youthful in appearance, that the grave professors thought it impossible that his attainments could be as great as they had been represented to be; but when he delivered his inaugural oration in Latin, all were astonished, and their prejudices were removed. Luther himself was enthusiastic in his praises, and a friendship commenced between them, which was never weakened by a quarrel. The mildness and gentleness of Philip Melancthon at once contrasted and harmonized with the boldness, energy, and tumultuous passions of Luther, as side by side they subsequently fought the great battle of their day.

Ch. 2. A. D. 1518. Melancthon.

But there was another distinguished personage, who now viewed the movement with anything but indifference; and this was Leo X., the reigning Pope when the theses were published. He belonged to the illustrious family of the Medici, and was chosen cardinal at the age of thirteen. The most accomplished of the Popes, he was the zealous patron of art and literature, and ornamented his capital with palaces, churches, and statues. But with all this sympathy for intellectual excellence, he was prodigal, luxurious, and worldly, more ambitious for temporal than spiritual power, reckless in the imposition of taxes, and, notwithstanding all his taste and talent, quite unfitted for his station and his times.

Pope Leo X.

Thus far the outcry which Luther had raised against indulgences had been allowed to take its course. But now the Emperor Maximilian became alarmed, and wrote to the

Maximilian.

Ch. 2. Pope an account of Luther's differences with Tetzel. Frederic
A. D. 1518. of Saxony had also written to his Holiness, to palliate the conduct of Luther.

Papal legate sent to Germany

When such powerful princes became interested, Leo was startled. He summoned Luther to Rome, to be tried by Prierias the censor. Luther, not daring to refuse, and not willing to obey, wrote to his friend Spalatin to use his influence with the Elector to have his cause tried in Germany; and the Pope, willing to please Frederic, appointed De Vio, his legate, to investigate the matter. Luther accordingly set out for Augsburg, in obedience to the summons of De Vio, although dissuaded by many of his friends. He had several interviews with the legate, by whom he was treated with courtesy and urbanity, and earnestly dissuaded from his present courses. But all the persuasion and argument of the cardinal legate were without effect on the mind of Luther, whose convictions were not to be put aside either by kindness or craft. De Vio had hoped that he could induce Luther to retract; but when he found him fixed in his resolution, he changed his tone, and resorted to threats. Luther then made up his mind to leave Augsburg, and, appealing to the decision of the Sovereign Pontiff, whose authority he had not yet openly defied, he fled from the city, and returned to Wittemberg, being countenanced by the Elector, to whom he also addressed letters. His life was safe so long as Frederic protected him.

Fails to convince Luther.

Leipsic Disputation.

The next event in the progress of Luther was the Leipsic Disputation, June, 1519. The Pope seemed willing to make one more effort to convince Luther, before he proceeded to take violent courses. There was then at his court a noble Saxon, Charles Miltitz, whose talents and insinuating address secured him the high office of chamberlain to the Pope. He accordingly was sent into his native country, with the dignity of legate, to remove the difficulties which De Vio had not been able to overcome. He tried persuasion and flattery, and treated the reformer with great civility. But Luther still

persisted in refusing to retract, and the matter was referred to the Elector Archbishop of Trèves. Ch. 2. A. D. 1519.

While the controversy was pending, Dr. Eck, of the University of Ingolstadt, a man of great scholastic ingenuity and attainment, and proud in the possession of prizes from eight universities, challenged the professors of Wittemberg to a public controversy on the points at issue. He regarded the disputation with the eye of a practised fencer, and sought the means of extending his fame. Leipsic was the appointed arena, and thither resorted the noble and the learned of Saxony.

The debate.

The place for the combat was a hall in the royal palace of Duke George, cousin to the Elector Frederic, which was arranged and ornamented with great care, and which was honoured by the presence of the duke, and of the chief divines and nobles of Northern Germany. Carlstadt opened the debate, which did not excite much interest until Luther's turn came, the antagonist whom Eck was most desirous to meet, and whose rising fame he hoped to crush by a brilliant victory. Ranke thus describes Luther's person at this time: —"He was of the middle size, and so thin as to be mere skin and bone. He possessed neither the thundering voice, nor the ready memory, nor the skill and dexterity of his distinguished antagonist. But he stood in the prime of manhood and in the fulness of his strength. His voice was melodious and clear; he was perfectly versed in the Bible, and its aptest sentences presented themselves unbidden to his mind; above all, he inspired an irresistible conviction that he sought the truth. He was always cheerful at home, and a joyous, jocose companion at table: even on this grave occasion, he ascended the platform with a nosegay in his hand; but, when there, he displayed intrepid and self-forgetting earnestness, arising from the depth of a conviction until now unfathomed, even by himself. He drew forth new thoughts, and placed them in the fire of the battle, with a determination that knew no fear and no personal regard. His features bore

Ranke's character of Luther.

Ch. 2. traces of the storms that had passed over his soul, and of the courage with which he was prepared to encounter those which yet awaited him. His whole aspect evinced profound thought, joyousness of temper, and confidence in the future.

A. D. 1519.

Character of the debate.

The battle immediately commenced on the question of the authority of the papacy, which, at once intelligible and important, riveted universal attention." Eck, with great erudition and masterly logic, supported the claim of the Pope, from the decrees of councils, the opinions of scholastics, and even from those celebrated words of Christ to Peter—"Thou art Peter, and on this rock will I build my church." Luther took higher and bolder ground, denied the infallibility of councils, and appealed to Scripture as the ultimate authority. Eck had probably the advantage over his antagonist, so far as dialectics were concerned, being a more able disputant; but Luther set at defiance mere scholastic logic, and appealed to an authority which dialectics could not reach. The victory was claimed by both parties; but the result was, that Luther no longer acknowledged the authority of the Roman church, and admitted none but that of the Scriptures.

Authority of the Scriptures.

This Leipsic disputation was the grand *intellectual* contest of the Reformation, and developed its second great idea—the only principle around which all sects and parties of the Protestants rally,—viz., that *the Scriptures are the only ultimate grounds of authority in religion, and that, moreover, every man has a right to interpret them for himself.* Different sects have different views respecting justification, but all profess to trace them to the Scriptures.

Critical position of Luther.

Luther's position was now critical. He was in the situation of Huss and Jerome, and other reformers, who had been destroyed, with scarcely an exception. He was brought in direct conflict with the Pope, with the great dignitaries of the church, with the universities, and with the whole scholastic literature. He had to expect the violent opposition and vengeance of the Pope, of the monks, of the great ecclesiastical dignitaries, of the most distinguished scholars, and of those

secular princes who were friendly to Rome. He had none to protect him but a prince of the empire, powerful indeed, and wise, but old and wavering. There were but few to uphold and defend him. The worldly-minded, the learned, the powerful, were generally his enemies. But he had reason and Scripture on his side, and he appealed to their great and final verdict.

His fitness for his work.

He was indeed singularly fitted, both by nature and circumstances, for the position of a popular leader. He was master of the sympathies and passions of the people; his father was a toiling miner; his grandfather was a peasant; he had been trained to penury; he had associated with the poor; he was a man of the people; he was their natural friend. He saw and lamented their burdens, and rose up for their deliverance. And the people distinguished their true friend from their false friends. They saw the sincerity, earnestness, and labours of the new apostle of liberty, and believed in him, and made an idol of him. They would assist him, honour him, obey him, and believe what he taught them, for he was their protector, whom God had raised up to take off their burdens, and point a way to heaven, without the intercession of priests, or indulgences, or penance.

Papal excommunication.

The Pope, hitherto mild, persuasive, and undecided, now arose in anger, and, as the successor of St. Peter, hurled those weapons which had been thunderbolts in the hands of the Gregories and the Innocents. From his papal throne, and with all the solemnity of God's appointed vicegerent, he denounced the daring monk of Wittemberg, and sentenced him to the wrath of God, and to the penalty of eternal fire. Luther was excommunicated by a papal bull, and his writings were condemned as heretical and damnable.

Its terrors.

This was a dreadful sentence. Few had ever resisted it successfully. Excommunication was still a fearful weapon, and wielded only in desperate circumstances. It was the last resort, for frequency would destroy its power. In the Middle Ages this weapon was omnipotent; and the Middle Ages had

Ch. 2. A. D. 1520. but just passed away. No one could stand before that awful anathema, which consigned him to the wrath of incensed and implacable Deity. Much as some professed to despise the sentence, it could not be borne even by a monarch, without fear and trembling, especially if accompanied with an interdict. Children were then left unburied. The churches were closed. The rites of religion were suspended. A funereal shade was spread over society. Fears of hell haunted every imagination. No reason was strong enough to resist the sentence. No arm was sufficiently powerful to remove the curse. It hung over a guilty land, and doomed the unhappy offender wherever he went, and in whatever work he was engaged.

Luther's intrepidity.

But Luther was strong enough to resist it, and to despise it. He saw it was an imposition, which only barbarous and ignorant ages had permitted. Moreover, he perceived that there was now no alternative but victory or death; that in the great contest in which he was engaged retreat was infamy. Nor did he wish to retreat. He was fighting for oppressed humanity, and death in such a cause was glory. He understood fully the nature and the consequences of the struggle. He perceived the greatness of the odds against him, in a worldly point of view. No man but a Luther would have been equal to it, for no man before him had ever successfully rebelled against the Pope. It is only in view of this circumstance that his intrepidity can be appreciated.

Burning of the papal bull.

What did the Saxon monk do, when the papal bull was published? He assembled the professors and students of the university, solemnly protested against the Pope as antichrist, and marched in procession to the gates of the Castle of Wittemberg, where he cast into a bonfire the bull which condemned him, the canon law, and some writings of the schoolmen, and then re-entered the city, breathing defiance against the whole power of the Pope, conscious that a battle had commenced, which would last as long as life, yet perfectly secure that the victory would finally be on the side of truth. This was on the 10th of December, 1520.

The attention of the whole nation was necessarily drawn to this open resistance, and the sympathy of multitudes was expressed for him. The spirit of innovation became contagious, and pervaded the German mind. It demanded the serious attention of the Emperor himself.

Diet of Worms.

A great diet of the empire was convened at Worms, and thither Luther was summoned by the temporal power. He had a safe conduct, which even so powerful a prince as Charles V. durst not violate. In April, 1521, the reformer appeared before the collected dignitaries of the German empire, both spiritual and temporal, and was called upon to recant his opinions as heretical in the eyes of the church, and dangerous to the peace of the empire. Before the most august assembly in the world, without a trace of embarrassment, he made his defence, and refused to recant. "Unless," said he, "my errors can be demonstrated by texts from Scripture, I will not and cannot recant; for it is not safe for a man to go against his conscience. Here I am. I can do no otherwise. God help me! Amen."

This declaration satisfied his friends, though it did not satisfy the members of the diet. Luther was permitted to retire. He had gained the confidence of the nation. From that time he was its idol, and the acknowledged leader of the greatest movement which modern times have seen. And yet his labours had but just commenced. Henceforth his life was toil and vexation. New difficulties continually arose. New questions had to be continually settled. Luther, by his letters, was everywhere. He commenced the translation of the Scriptures; he wrote numberless controversial tracts; his correspondence was unparalleled; his efforts as a preacher were prodigious. But he was equal to it all.

Imprisonment at Wartburg.

About this time commenced his friendly imprisonment at Wartburg, among the Thuringian forests; he being probably conducted thither by the orders of the Elector of Saxony. Here he was out of sight, but not out of mind; and his retirement, under the disguise of a knight, gave him leisure

Ch. 2. A. D. 1521. for literary labour. In the old Castle of Wartburg, a great part of the Scriptures was translated into that beautiful and simple version, which is still the standard of the German language.

While Luther was translating the Scriptures in his retreat, Wittemberg was the scene of new commotions, pregnant with great results. There were many of the more zealous converts to the reformed doctrines, headed by Carlstadt, dean of the faculty of theology, who were not content with the progress which had been made, and who desired more sweeping and radical changes. Such a party ever exists in times of reform; for there are some persons who are always inclined to ultra and extravagant courses. Carlstadt was a type of such men. He was learned, sincere, and amiable, but his mind was not well balanced. To him the Reformation was only a half measure. He desired to abolish all priestly garments, all fasts and holidays, all pictures in the churches, and all emblematical ceremonies of every kind. He insisted upon closing all places of public amusement; upon the abolition of all religious communities; and upon the division of their possessions among the poor.

Carlstadt.

His extravagances.

For such innovations the age was certainly not prepared, even had they been founded on reason; and the conservative mind of Luther was shocked at extravagances which served only to disgust the whole Christian world, and to jeopardize the cause in which he had embarked. So, against the entreaties of the Elector, and in spite of the ban of the empire, he returned to Wittemberg, where were now congregated the flower of the German youth. He resolved to oppose the movements of Carlstadt, even though opposition should destroy his influence. Especially did he declare against all violent measures to which the ultra reformers were inclined, knowing full well that if his cause were sullied with violence or fanaticism, all Christendom would unite to suppress it. His sermons are at this time (1522) pervaded with a profound and conservative spirit, and also a spirit of conciliation and

Luther's return.

love, calculated to calm passion, and carry conviction to excited minds. His moderate counsels prevailed, the tumults were hushed, and order was restored. Carlstadt was silenced for a time; but his spirit was too active, and the age was too excited, for him to yield to Luther's authority on all points, especially on those to which he attached great importance. One of these was in reference to the presence of Christ's body in the Eucharist, which Carlstadt totally denied. He taught "that the Lord's supper was purely symbolic, and was simply a pledge to believers of their redemption." But Luther saw in every attempt to exhibit the mere symbolical import of the Supper only the danger of weakening the authority of Scripture; he therefore carried his views to the extreme of literal interpretation, and never could fully emancipate himself from the doctrines of Rome respecting the Eucharist. Carlstadt, finding himself persecuted at Wittemberg, left the city, and, as soon as he was released from the presence of Luther, began to revive his former zeal against images also, and was the promoter of great disturbances. He at last sought refuge in Strasburg, and sacrificed fame, and friends, and bread to his honest convictions.

Carlstadt's flight.

The views of Carlstadt, however, found advocates, and his extravagances were copied with still greater zeal. Many pretended to special divine illumination, and regarded the light thus obtained as superior to every other. Among these was Thomas Münzer, of Zwickau, mystical, ignorant, and conceited, but sincere and simple-hearted. "Luther," said he, "has liberated men's consciences from the papal yoke, but he has not led them in spirit towards God." Considering himself as specially called upon to bring men into greater spiritual liberty, he went about inflaming the popular mind, frequently raising discontents, and sometimes even inciting to revolt.

Münzer and the peasants' war.

Religion now became mingled with politics, and social and political evils were violently resisted under that garb. An insurrection at last arose in the districts of the Black Forest

Ch. 2. (1524), near the sources of the Danube, and spread from Suabia to the Rhine provinces, until it became exceedingly formidable. Then commenced what is called the "peasants' war," which was only ended by the slaughter of fifty thousand people. As the causes of this war, however, were chiefly political, the details belong to our chapter on political history. For this insurrection of the peasantry Luther always expressed great detestation, although he not unfrequently availed himself of it to lecture the princes of Germany on their duties as civil rulers.

A. D. 1524.

Marriage of Luther.

The peasant war was scarcely ended, when Luther married Catharine Bora; and, as she was a nun and he was a monk, the marriage occasioned universal scandal. This union, which proved a happy one, was the signal of new reforms. Luther now emancipated himself from his monastic fetters, and lifted up his voice against the whole monastic system. Eight years had elapsed since he had preached against indulgences. During these eight years reform had been gradual; it had now advanced to the extreme limit it ever reached during the life of the reformer.

But in another quarter it sprang up with new force, and was carried to an extent not favoured in Germany. It was in Switzerland that the greatest approximation was made to the forms, if not to the spirit, of primitive Christianity.

Ulric Zwingle.

The great hero of this Swiss movement was Ulric Zwingle, the most interesting of all the reformers. He was born in 1484, was educated amid the mountains of his picturesque country, and, like Erasmus, Reuchlin, Luther, and Melancthon, had no claims to nobility beyond those of nature. But though poor, he was master of the scholastic philosophy, and of all the learning of his age. Like Luther, he was passionately fond of music, and played the lute, the harp, the violin, the flute, and the dulcimer. There was no more joyous spirit in all Switzerland than his. Every one loved his society, and honoured his attainments, and admired his genius. Like Luther and Erasmus, he was disgusted with scholasticism,

and regretted the time he had devoted to its study. He was ordained in 1506 by the Bishop of Constance, and was settled in Zurich in 1518.

Light broke upon the mind of Zwingle very gradually, and chiefly through the reading of the Scriptures. His experience was calm. He had no tempests to withstand, such as shook the soul of the Saxon monk. Nor was he so much interested on doctrinal points of faith. But he saw with equal clearness the corruptions of the church, and preached with equal zeal against indulgences and the usurpations of the Popes. The reformation of morals was the great aim of his life. His preaching was practical and simple, and his doctrine was, that "religion consisted in trust in God, loving God, and innocence of life." Moreover, he took a deep interest in the political relations of his country, and was an enthusiast in liberty as well as in religion. To him the town of Zurich was indebted for its emancipation from the episcopal government of Constance, and also for a reformation in all the externals of the church. He inspired the citizens with that positive spirit of Protestantism, which afterwards characterized Calvin and the Puritans. He was too radical a reformer to suit Luther, although he sympathized with most of his theological opinions.

Character of Zwingle.

On one point, however, they differed; and this difference led to an acrimonious contest, disgraceful to Luther, and forming, perhaps, the greatest blot on his character, inasmuch as it developed, to an extraordinary degree, both obstinacy and dogmatism, and showed that he could not bear contradiction or opposition. The quarrel arose from difference of views respecting the Lord's Supper, Luther maintaining the omnipresence of Christ's body in the sacred elements. He relinquished, indeed, the doctrine of the continually repeated miracle, but he substituted a universal miracle, wrought once for all. In the tenacity with which he clung to the opinions of the schoolmen on this point, we see his conservative spirit; he would not deny tradition, unless it was expressly contradicted by Scripture. He would probably have maintained

Differences with Luther.

Ch. 2. A. D. 1527. the whole structure of the Latin church, had it not been disfigured by modern additions; and so profoundly was he attached to its traditions, that he only emancipated himself by violent inward storms. Zwingle, on the contrary, took Carlstadt's view of the Eucharist, that it was merely symbolic. Luther rejected all offers of conciliation, declared it essential to salvation to believe in the real presence of Christ in the sacrament, and refused to acknowledge Zwingle as a brother.

Spirit of Zwingle's reforms.

Zwingle, nevertheless, continued his reforms, and sought to restore what he conceived to be the earliest forms in which Christianity had manifested itself. He desired to make all worship purely spiritual. He rejected all rites and ceremonies not expressly enjoined in the Bible. Luther insisted on retaining all that was not expressly forbidden. And this was the main point of distinction between them and their adherents.

Political combinations.

But Zwingle contemplated political as well as religious changes, and as early as 1527, two years before his conference with Luther at Marburg, he had projected a league of all the reformers against the political authorities which opposed their progress. He combated the abuses of the State, as well as of the church. These designs at once created enemies, and secured enthusiastic friends. In all the cantons there was a strong democratic party opposed to the existing oligarchies, and in Berne, Basle, St. Gall, Zurich, Appenzell, Schaffhausen, and Glarus, this party obtained the ascendency. Tumults and violence followed, and finally civil war between the different cantons, those which adhered to the old faith being assisted by Austria. Lucerne, Uri, Schwytz, Zug, and Unterwalden took the lead against the reformed cantons, the foremost of which was Zurich, where Zwingle lived. Zurich was attacked. Zwingle, from impulses of patriotism and courage, issued forth from his house, and joined the standard of his countrymen, not as a chaplain, but as an armed warrior. This was his mistake. "They that take the sword shall perish with the sword." The intrepid and enlightened

reformer was slain in 1531, and, with his death, expired the hopes of his party. The restoration of the Roman Catholic religion immediately commenced in Switzerland.

Luther, wiser than Zwingle, inasmuch as he abstained from politics, continued his labours in Germany. And they were immense. The burdens of his country rested on his shoulders. He was the dictator of the reformed party, and his word was received as law. Moreover, the party continually increased, and in the support it received from some of the most powerful of the German princes became formidable, even in a political point of view. Nearly one half of Germany embraced the reformed faith.

The illustrious Charles V. had now for some time been Emperor, and in the prosecution of his conquests had found it necessary to secure the support of united Germany, especially since Germany was now invaded by the Turks. In order to secure this support, he deemed it expedient to make concessions in religion to his Protestant subjects. At the diet of Augsburg (1530), where there was the most brilliant assemblage of princes which had been for a long time seen in Germany, the celebrated confession of the faith of the Protestants was read. It was written by Melancthon, in both Latin and German, on the basis of articles which Luther had prepared. The style was Melancthon's; the matter was Luther's. It was comprised in twenty-eight articles, of which twenty-one pertained to the faith of the Protestants, —the name they assumed at the diet of Spires, in 1529, —and the remaining seven recounted the errors and abuses of Rome. It was subscribed by the Elector of Saxony, the Marquis of Brandenburg, the Duke of Lunenburg, the Landgrave of Hesse, the Prince of Anhalt, and the deputies of the imperial cities of Nuremberg and Reutlingen. But the Catholics had the ascendency in the diet, and the "Confession of Augsburg" was condemned. The Emperor did not, however, venture on any decisive measures for the extirpation of the "heresy." He threatened and published edicts,

Diet of Augsburg.

Confession of Augsburg.

Ch. 2. but his menaces had but little force. Nevertheless, the Protestant princes assembled, first at Smalcalde, and afterwards at Frankfort, for an alliance of mutual defence. This was the first effective union of free princes and states against their oppressors in modern Europe, and it laid the foundation of liberty of conscience. Hostilities, however, were deferred, since the Emperor was desirous of uniting Germany against the Turks. To accomplish this, he recalled the edicts of Worms and Augsburg against the Protestants, made important concessions, and promised them undisturbed enjoyment of their religion. This was a great triumph to the Protestants, and as great a shock to the papal power.

A. D. 1530.

League of Smalcalde.

The Confession of Augsburg and the League of Smalcalde form an important era of Protestantism, since by these the reformed faith received its definite form, and was guaranteed. The work for which Luther had been raised up was now, in the main, accomplished. His great message had been delivered and heard.

His later life was perplexed and anxious. He had not anticipated those civil commotions which he now saw, sooner or later, were inevitable. With the increase of his party came the decline of spirituality. Political considerations also were, with many, more prominent than moral. Religion and politics mingled together, not soon to be separated in the progress of events. Moreover, the reformers differed upon many points among themselves. There was a lamentable want of harmony between the Germans and the Swiss. Luther had quarrelled with nearly every prominent person with whom he had been associated, except Melancthon, who yielded to him implicit obedience. But, above all, the Anabaptist disorders, which he detested, and which distracted the whole bishopric of Münster, oppressed and mortified him. Worn out with the cares, labours, and vexations, which always disturb the peace and alloy the happiness of heroes, and from which no greatness is exempt, he died at Eisleben,

Disunion.

in 1545, while on a visit to his native place in order to reconcile dissensions between the Counts of Mansfeldt. Ch. 2. A. D. 1545.

Luther's name is still reverenced in Germany, and throughout all Protestant countries he is held in honour as an intrepid champion of the faith. Other men may have been more distinguished by genius or by learning, but none ever evinced greater intrepidity, or combined nobler qualities of mind and heart. He had his faults: he was irritable, dogmatic, and abusive in his controversial writings. He had little toleration for those who differed from him—the fault of the age; but he was genial, joyous, friendly, and disinterested. His labours were gigantic; his sincerity unimpeached; his piety enlightened; his zeal unquenchable. Circumstances and the new ideas of his age may have favoured him, but he made himself master of those circumstances and ideas, and, what is more, worked them out in harmony with Christianity. The Reformation would have happened had there been no Luther, though at a less favourable time; but of all the men of his age that the Reformation could least spare, Martin Luther stands pre-eminent. Death of Luther. His character.

REFERENCES.—The attention of the student is directed only to the most prominent of the many valuable works which treat of Luther and the Protestant Reformation. Among those which are both accessible and useful may be mentioned, Ranke's "History;" D'Aubigné's "History of the Reformation;" Michelet's "Life of Luther;" Audin's "Life of Luther," a Catholic work, written with great spirit, but not much liberality; Stebbing's "History of the Reformation;" Guizot's "Lectures on Civilization;" and Plank's "Essay on the Consequences of the Reformation."

CHAPTER III.

THE EMPEROR CHARLES V.

Ch. 3. A. D. 1510. WHEN Luther appeared upon the stage, the great monarchies of Europe had just arisen upon the ruins of those feudal states which survived the wreck of Charlemagne's empire.

Germany. The Emperor of Germany, of all these monarchs, had the greatest claim to antiquity and dignity. As hereditary sovereign of Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and the Tyrol, he had absolute authority in his feudal provinces; while, as an elected Emperor, he had an indirect influence over Saxony, the Palatinate, the three archbishoprics of Trèves, Mentz, and Cologne, and some of the Burgundian territories.

France. France was probably at this time the most powerful of the kingdoms; its capital was even then the finest city in Europe, and the resort of the learned and the wealthy from all parts of Christendom. All strangers extolled the splendour of the court, the wealth of the nobles, and the fame of the university. The power of the monarch was nearly absolute, and a considerable standing army was ready to obey his commands.

Spain. Spain, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, was ruled by Ferdinand and Isabella, who, by their marriage, had united the crowns of Castile and Arragon. The conquest of Granada, and the discovery of America, had added greatly to the political importance of this country, and the foundation of its future greatness under Philip II. was now laid.

England. England, from its insular position, had not so much influence in European politics as the other powers to which allusion has been made, but it was, nevertheless, a flourishing and united kingdom. Henry VII., the founder of the house

of Tudor, sat on the throne, and had been successful both in suppressing the power of the feudal nobility, and in increasing the royal authority. England, however, had not yet made great advances in commerce or manufactures, and the people were still to some extent rude and ignorant. The clergy, as in other countries, were the most intelligent and wealthy portion of the population, and, consequently, the most influential, although disgraced by many vices.

Italy.

Italy then, as now, was divided into many independent states, and distracted by civil and religious dissensions. The duchy of Milan was ruled by Ludovico Moro, son of the celebrated Francis Sforza. Naples, called a kingdom, had just been conquered by the French. Florence was under the sway of the Medici. Venice, whose commercial importance had already begun to decline, was controlled by an oligarchy of nobles. The chair of St. Peter was filled by Pope Alexander VI., a pontiff who has obtained an infamous immortality by his vices. The papacy was then in a very corrupt state, the popes themselves being much more eager to secure temporal authority than spiritual influence.

Russia, Denmark, Norway Sweden.

The great northern kingdoms of Europe, which are now so considerable,—Russia, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway,—did not, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, attract much attention. They were for the most part plunged in barbarism, the light of science or religion rarely penetrating among them. Their monarchs were cruel, their nobles rapacious, and their clergy ignorant and corrupt; while their peoples, insensible to their degradation, had little appreciation of the benefits of civilization. Peter and Gustavus Adolphus had not yet appeared. Nor were these northern nations destined to be immediately benefited by the impulse which the Reformation gave, with the exception of Sweden, which was more advanced than the rest.

Ottoman empire.

The Greek empire became extinct when Constantinople was taken by the Turks, in 1453. On its ruins the Ottoman power was raised. At the close of the fifteenth century, the

Ch. 8. Turkish arms were very powerful, and Europe again trembled before the Moslem.

A. D. 1519. Such were the various states of Europe when the Reformation broke out. Maximilian was Emperor of Germany; and Charles V. had just inherited from his father, Philip the Fair, who had married a daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, the kingdom of Spain, in addition to the dominion of the Netherlands.

Charles V. By the death of Maximilian, in 1519, the youthful sovereign of Spain and the Netherlands came into possession of the Austrian dominions; and the electors shortly after chose him Emperor of Germany.

He was born at Ghent, in the year 1500, and was educated with great care. He early displayed his love of government, and, at fifteen, was present at the deliberations of the cabinet. But he had no taste for learning, and exhibited but few marks of that genius which he afterwards evinced. He was much attached to his Flemish subjects, and during the first year of his reign gave great offence to the grandees of Spain and the nobles of Germany by his marked partiality for those men who had been his early companions.

His motives & policy. It is difficult to trace in the career of Charles V. any powerful motives of conduct, separate from the desire of aggrandizement. The interests of the church, with which his own were identified, and the true welfare of his subjects, were, at different times, sacrificed to his ambition. Had there been no powerful monarchs on the other thrones of Europe, his dreams might possibly have been realized. But at this period there happened to be a constellation of princes.

His great rival. The greatest of these, and the chief rival through life of Charles, was Francis I. of France. He had even anticipated an election to the imperial crown, which would have made him more powerful than even Charles himself. The electors feared both, and chose Frederic of Saxony; but he declined the dangerous post. Charles, as Archduke of Austria, had such great and obvious claims, that they could not be dis-

regarded. He was therefore the fortunate candidate. But his election was a great disappointment to Francis, and he could not conceal his mortification. Ch. 3 A. D. 1519 to 1523.

Peace could not long subsist between two envious and ambitious princes. Francis was nearly of the same age as Charles, had inherited despotic power, was free from financial embarrassments, and ruled over an united and loyal people. He was therefore no contemptible enemy. In addition, he strengthened himself by alliances with the Swiss and Venetians. Charles, on the other hand, sought the favour of the Pope and of Henry VIII. of England. The real causes of war were mutual jealousies, and passion for military glory. The assigned causes were, that Charles did not respect the claims of Francis as King of Naples; and, on the other hand, that Francis had seized the duchy of Milan, which was a fief of the empire, and also retained the duchy of Burgundy, the patrimonial inheritance of the Emperor. Their mutual jealousy.

The political history of Europe, for nearly thirty years, is a record of wars between these powerful princes, of their mutual disasters, disappointments, and successes. Other contests arose from independent causes, such as the revolt of the Spanish grandees, of the peasants in Germany, and the invasion of the empire by the Turks. During the reign of Charles occurred also the division of the princes of Germany, on grounds of religion, the foundation of a contest which, after his death, convulsed Germany for thirty years. But the Thirty Years' War was a religious war, a political consequence of the Reformation. The wars between Charles and Francis were purely wars of military ambition. Charles had greater territories and larger armies; but Francis had more money, and more absolute control over his forces; for Charles's power was checked in Spain by the free spirit of the Cortes, and in Germany, both by the independence of the princes, and by the embarrassing questions which arose out of the Reformation. Character of the wars between Charles and Francis.

It would be tedious to recite the various struggles of

Ch. 3. Charles with his rival. Each of them gained, at different times, great successes, and each experienced, in turn, the most humiliating reverses. Francis was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, in 1525, and confined in a fortress at Madrid, until he promised to the victors the complete dismemberment of France—an extorted promise, which he never meant to keep. No sooner had he recovered his liberty, than he violated all his oaths, and Europe was again the scene of fresh hostilities. The passion of revenge was now added to that of ambition, and, as the Pope had favoured the cause of Francis, the generals of Charles invaded Italy. Rome was taken and sacked by the constable Bourbon, a French noble whom Francis had slighted, and cruelties and outrages were perpetrated by the imperial forces which never disgraced Alaric or Attila.

A. D. 1525.

Battle of Pavia.

Sack of Rome.

The first peace between these contending princes took place at Cambray, 1529, owing chiefly to the desire of Francis to obtain his children, whom he had surrendered as hostages. He agreed to pay two millions of crowns for their ransom, and to relinquish his pretensions to the Low Countries and Italy.

Peace of Cambray.

Charles, after the treaty of Cambray was signed, visited Italy with all the pomp of a conqueror. At Genoa he honoured Doria with many marks of distinction, and bestowed upon the republic new privileges. He settled all his difficulties with Milan, Venice, and Florence, and re-established the authority of the Medici. He was then crowned by the Pope, whom he had trampled on, as King of Lombardy and Emperor of the Romans, and hastened into Germany, which imperatively required his presence, both on account of dissensions among the princes, which the Reformation had caused, and the invasion of Austria by three hundred thousand Turks. He resolved to recover the old prerogatives of the Emperor of Germany, and to crush the opinions which were undermining his authority.

A diet of the Empire was accordingly summoned at Spires,

in order to take into consideration the state of religion, the main cause of all the disturbances in Germany. It met on the 15th of March, 1529, and the greatest address was required to prevent a civil war. All that Charles could obtain from the assembled princes was the promise to prevent *any further* innovations. A decree to that effect was passed, against which, however, the followers of Luther protested, the most powerful of whom were the Elector of Saxony, the Marquis of Brandenburg, the Landgrave of Hesse, the Duke of Lunenburg, the Prince of Anhalt, and the deputies of fourteen imperial cities. This protest gave to them the name of *Protestants*—a name ever since retained.

Ch. 3. A. D. 1529. Diet of Spires.

Soon after the diet assembled at Augsburg, when the articles of faith, known as the Confession of Augsburg, were read. In consequence of the condemnation of this confession, the Protestant princes, as has been stated in the preceding chapter, entered into a league at Smalcalde (December 22, 1530) to support one another, and to defend their religion.

Diet of Augsburg.

Circumstances, however, continually occurred to convince Charles that the extirpation of heresy by the sword was impossible in Germany, and the attempt impolitic, if he wished to unite the German provinces in a vigorous confederation. Accordingly, after many difficulties, and with great reluctance, terms of pacification were agreed upon at Nuremberg (1531), and ratified in the diet at Ratisbon shortly after, by which it was agreed that no person should be molested in his religion, and that the Protestants, on their part, should assist the Emperor in resisting the invasion of the Turks. The Germans, with their customary good faith, furnished all the assistance they promised; and one of the best armies ever raised in Germany, amounting to ninety thousand foot, and thirty thousand horse, took the field, commanded by the Emperor in person. But the campaign ended without any memorable event, both parties having erred from excessive caution.

Peace of Nuremberg.

Francis soon availed himself of the difficulties and dangers

Ch. 3. of his rival, formed an alliance with the Turks, put forth his old claims, courted the favour of the German Protestants, and renewed hostilities. He also marched towards Italy, and took possession of the dominions of the Duke of Savoy, whom the Emperor, at this juncture, was unable to assist, on account of his African expedition against the pirate Barbarossa.

A. D. 1532 to 1545.

Barbarossa.

This noted corsair had built up a great power in Tunis and Algiers, and committed shameful ravages on all Christian nations. Charles landed in Africa with thirty thousand men, took the fortress of Goletta, defeated the pirate's army, captured his capital, and restored the exiled Moorish king to his throne. In the midst of these victories Francis invaded Savoy. Charles was terribly indignant, and loaded his rival with such violent invectives, that Francis challenged him to single combat. The challenge was accepted, but the duel was never fought. Charles, in his turn, invaded France with a large army for that age—forty thousand foot and ten thousand horse; but the expedition was unfortunate. Francis acted on the defensive with admirable skill, and was fortunate in his general, Montmorency, who seemed possessed with the spirit of a Fabius. The Emperor at last was compelled to return ingloriously, having lost the half of his army without having gained a single important advantage. War did not, however, end with the retreat of Charles, but was continued, with great personal animosity, until mutual exhaustion led to a truce for ten years, concluded at Nice in 1538. This truce was soon broken; two years after, hostilities were renewed and continued till the peace of Cressy, in 1544.

Peace of Cressy.

Council of Trent.

In the mean time the Pope resolved to assemble the famous Council of Trent, the legality of which the Protestants denied. It met in December, 1545, and was the last general council.

It met with a view of healing the dissensions of the church, and confirming the authority of the Pope. The princes of Europe hoped that important reforms would have been made; but nothing of consequence was done. The attention of the divines was directed to dogmas rather than

to morals. The great number of Italian bishops enabled the Pope to have everything his own way, in spite of the remonstrances of the German, Spanish, and French prelates, and of the ambassadors of the different monarchs, who also had seats in the council.

The decrees of this council respecting articles of faith are considered as a final authority by the Roman church. It denounced the reform of Luther, and confirmed the various ecclesiastical usurpations which had rendered the Reformation necessary. It lasted twenty-two years, being held at different intervals, during the pontificate of five popes. The Jesuits, during its sittings, had considerable influence in consequence of the learning and ability of their representatives, and especially of Laynez, the general of the Order. The Dominicans and Franciscans manifested their accustomed animosities and rivalries, and questions were continually proposed and agitated, which divided the assembly. The French bishops, headed by the Cardinal of Lorraine, were opposed to the high pretensions of the Italians, especially of Cardinal Morone, the papal legate; but, by artifice and management, the more strenuous adherents of the Pope attained their ends.

Its character.

About the time the council assembled died three distinguished persons—Henry VIII. of England, Francis I., and Luther. Charles was now freed at once from his great rival, and from the only private person in his dominions he had reason to fear. He determined, therefore, in good earnest, to turn his attention to the internal state of his empire, and to crush the Reformation. He commenced by endeavouring to amuse and deceive the Protestants, and evinced that profound dissimulation, which was one of his characteristics. He formed a strict alliance with the Pope, made a truce with Solyman, and won over to his side Maurice and other German princes. His military preparations and his intrigues alarmed the Protestants, and they prepared themselves for resistance. Religious zeal seconded their military ardour. One of the largest armies which had been raised in Europe for a century

Death of Luther and of Francis.

Ch. 3. took the field, and Charles, shut up in Ratisbon, was in no condition to fight. Unfortunately for the Protestants, they negotiated instead of acting. The Emperor was in their power, but he was one of the few persons who remain haughty and inflexible in the midst of calamities. Instead of decisive action, the Protestants dallied and procrastinated, unwilling to make peace, and equally unwilling to face their sovereign. Their army melted away, and nothing of importance was effected.

A. D. 1545 to 1547.

The fortune of war now inclined to Charles. The Elector of Saxony was taken prisoner at the battle of Muhlhausen, 1547, and deprived of his crown, which he was forced to surrender to Maurice. The Landgrave of Hesse, in no condition to fight single handed, also made his submission.

Triumph of Charles.

To all appearances the triumph of the Emperor was complete. His great rival was dead; his enemies were subdued and humiliated; Luther's voice was hushed; and immense contributions filled the imperial treasury. He now began to realize the dream of his life. He was unquestionably, at that time, the most absolute and powerful prince Europe had ever seen since the times of Charlemagne.

But what an impressive moral does the history of human greatness convey! The hour of triumph is often but the harbinger of defeat and shame. "Pride goeth before destruction." Charles, with all his policy and experience, overreached himself. The failure of his ambitious projects, and the restoration of Protestantism, were brought about by instruments the least anticipated.

Maurice returns to the Protestant side.

The cause of Protestantism and the liberties of Germany had been endangered by the treachery of Maurice, who received, as his reward, the great electorate of Saxony. He had climbed to the summit of glory and power. Who could suppose that this traitor prince would desert the Emperor who had so splendidly rewarded his services, and return to the rescue of those princes whom he had so basely betrayed? But who can thread the labyrinth of an intriguing and selfish

heart? Who can calculate the movements of an unprincipled and restless politician? Maurice, at length, awoke to a perception of the real condition of his country. He saw its liberties were about to be overturned by the most ambitious man whom ten centuries had produced. He saw a great cause, which his convictions told him was the true one, in danger of being wrecked. He was, moreover, wounded by the pride, coldness, and undisguised selfishness of the Emperor. He was indignant that the Landgrave, his father-in-law, should be retained a prisoner, against all the laws of honour and of justice. He resolved therefore to come to the rescue of his country.

Ch. 3. A. D. 1547 to 1552.

He formed his plans with the greatest coolness, and exercised a power of dissimulation that has no parallel in history. But his address was even greater than his hypocrisy. He gained the confidence of the Protestants, without losing that of the Emperor. He even obtained the command of an army which Charles sent to reduce the rebellious city of Magdeburg, and, while he was besieging the city, he was negotiating with the generals who defended it for a union against the Emperor. Magdeburg surrendered in 1551. Its chieftains were secretly assured that the terms of capitulation should not be observed.

Forms his plans.

His next point was, to keep the army together until his schemes were ripened, and then to arrest the Emperor, whose thoughts now centred on the council of Trent. So he proposed sending Protestant divines to the council, but delayed their departure by endless negotiations about the terms of a safe conduct. He, moreover, formed a secret treaty with Henry II., the successor of Francis, whose animosity against Charles was as intense as that of his father. When his preparations were completed, he joined his army in Thuringia, and took the field against the Emperor, who had no suspicion of his designs, and who blindly trusted to him, deeming it impossible that a man, whom he had so honored and rewarded, could turn against him. On the 18th of March, 1552, Maurice published his manifesto, justifying his conduct.

And takes the field.

Ch. 3. A. D. 1552. His objects, he said, were to secure the Protestant religion, to maintain the constitution of the empire, and to deliver the Landgrave of Hesse from bondage. He was powerfully supported by the French king, and, with a rapidly increasing army, marched towards Innspruck, where the Emperor was quartered. Charles was thunderstruck when he heard the tidings of this desertion, and was in no condition to resist him. He endeavoured to gain time by negotiations, but these were without effect. Maurice, at the head of a large army, advanced rapidly into Upper Germany. Castles and cities surrendered as he advanced, and so rapid was his progress, that he came near taking the Emperor captive. Charles was obliged to fly, in the middle of the night, and to travel on a litter by torchlight, amid the passes of the Alps. He had scarcely left Innspruck before Maurice entered it—but too late to gain the prize he sought.

Flight of Charles.

The Emperor now rallied his armies, and a vigorous war was again carried on between the contending parties. But the Protestants maintained the advantage they had secured, and the Emperor was obliged to make peace with them; for his Spanish subjects were disgusted with the war, his funds were exhausted, his forces dispersed, and his territories threatened by the French. On the 2d of August, 1552, was concluded the peace of Passau, which secured the return of the Landgrave to his dominions, freedom of religion to the Protestants, and the preservation of the German constitution. The sanguine hopes of the Emperor were now dispelled, all his ambitious schemes were defeated, and he was left to meditate, in the intervals of pain which he suffered from the gout, on the instability of all greatness, and the vanity of human life.

Treaty of Passau.

The labors and perplexities of Charles were not diminished by the treaty of Passau. He continued his hostilities against the French and against the Turks. He was obliged to raise the siege of Metz, which was gallantly defended by the Duke of Guise. To his calamities in France, were added others in Italy. Sienna revolted against his government, and

Naples was threatened by the Turks. The imperialists were unsuccessful in Italy and in Hungary, and the Archduke Ferdinand was obliged to abandon Transylvania. But war was carried on in the Low Countries with considerable vigor. Ch. 3. A. D. 1554 to 1556.

Charles, whose only passion was the aggrandizement of his house, now projected a marriage of his son, Philip, with Mary, Queen of England. The Queen, dazzled by the prospect of marrying the heir of the greatest monarch in Europe, and eager to secure his powerful aid to re-establish Catholicism in England, listened to his proposal, although it was disliked by the nation. In spite of the remonstrance of the house of commons, the marriage treaty was concluded, and the marriage celebrated (1554). Marriage of Philip VI.

Soon after, Charles formed the extraordinary resolution of resigning his dominions to his son, and retiring to a quiet retreat. Diocletian was the only instance of a prince, capable of holding the reins of government, who had adopted a similar course. All Europe was astonished at the resolution of Charles, and all historians of the period have moralized on the event. But it ceases to be mysterious, when we remember that Charles was no nearer the accomplishment of the ends which had animated his existence, than he was thirty years before; that he was disgusted and wearied with the world; and that he suffered severely from the gout, which, at times, incapacitated him for the government of his extensive dominions. It was never his habit to intrust others with duties and labors which he could perform himself, and he felt that his empire needed a more powerful protector than his infirmities permitted him to be. He was grown prematurely old; he felt his declining health, longed for repose, and sought religious consolation. Of all his vast possessions, he only reserved an annual pension of one hundred thousand crowns; resigning Spain and the Low Countries into the hands of Philip, and the empire of Germany to his brother Ferdinand, who had already been elected King of the Romans. He then set out for his Resignation of Charles.

Ch. 3. retreat in Spain, which was the monastery of St. Justus, near Placentia, situated in a lovely vale, surrounded with lofty trees, watered by a small brook, and rendered attractive by the fertility of the soil, and the delightful temperature of the climate. Here he spent his last days in agricultural improvements and religious exercises, apparently regardless of that noisy world which he had deserted for ever, and indifferent to those political storms which his restless ambition had raised. Here his grandeur and his worldly hopes were buried. He lived with great simplicity, for two years after his retreat, and died (1558) from the effects of gout, which had long shattered his constitution. He was not, properly speaking, endowed with genius; but he was a man of great sagacity, untiring industry, and respectable attainments. He was cautious, cold, and selfish, had but little faith in human virtue, and was a slave, in his latter days, to superstition. He was neither affable nor courteous, but he was sincere in his attachments, and munificent in rewarding his generals and friends. Inordinate ambition was his great defect, and this, in a man so prominent, and so favored by circumstances, was unfortunately enough to keep Europe disturbed for nearly half a century.

A. D. 1558.

His death and character.

REFERENCES.—Robertson's "History of Charles V.;" Ranke's "History of the Reformation;" Kohlrausch's "History of Germany;" Russell's "Modern Europe."

CHAPTER IV.

THE ENGLISH REFORMATION TO THE ACCESSION OF ELIZABETH.

CONTEMPORANEOUS with Luther and Charles V. was Henry VIII., whose reign is chiefly memorable for the first impulse given to the Reformation in England by royal power. A. D. 1509.

At the period of the Reformation, no European monarch was *practically* more absolute than Henry VIII., the second of the Tudor princes, who had ascended the throne in 1509, under the most auspicious circumstances. He was then in his 18th year, frank, handsome, and generous. He had considerable literary attainments, was the idol of the people, possessed a well-filled treasury, and was favoured with an obsequious parliament. Accession of Henry VIII.

We will not enumerate the various acts of Henry prior to the commencement of his domestic difficulties, such as his war with the Scots, his famous interview with Francis I., the execution of Stafford duke of Buckingham, and the rise of Wolsey. It was his divorce from his wife which led to the great events of his reign, and therefore we must content ourselves with that as a starting point.

Queen Catharine, daughter of Ferdinand, King of Spain, was six years older than her husband, whom she married in the first year of his reign. She had been previously married to his brother Arthur, who died of the plague in 1502. For several years after her marriage with Henry VIII. her domestic happiness was a subject of remark; and the Emperor, Charles V., congratulated her on her brilliant fortune. She was beautiful, sincere, accomplished, religious, and disinter- Catharine of Arragon.

Ch. 4. ested, and every way calculated to secure, as she had won, the King's affections.

A. D. 1527. But among her maids of honor there was one peculiarly accomplished and fascinating, to whom the King transferred his affections with unwonted vehemence. This was Anne Boleyn, daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, a man of great wealth, who had married Elizabeth Howard, daughter of the first Duke of Norfolk. This alliance brought Sir Thomas Boleyn into close connection with royalty, and led to the appointment of his daughter to the high post which she held at the court of Queen Catharine.

Anne Boleyn.

It is probable that the King suppressed his passion for some time; and it would have been longer concealed, even from its object, had not his jealousy been excited by her attachment to Percy, son of the Earl of Northumberland. The King at last made known his wishes; but the daughter of the Howards was too proud, or too politic, or too high principled, to listen to his overtures. It was only *as Queen of England*, that she would return the affection of her royal lover. The King waited four years, but Anne remained inflexibly virtuous. He then meditated divorce from Catharine, as the only way to accomplish the object which now seemed to animate his existence.

Henry's divorce.

He confided the matter to his favorite minister; but Wolsey was thunderstruck at the disclosure, and remained with him four hours on his knees, to dissuade him from a step which he justly regarded as madness. He, however, recommended the King to consult the divines; for Henry pretended that, after nearly twenty years of married life, he had conscientious scruples about the lawfulness of marriage with his brother's widow. The learned English doctors were afraid to pronounce their opinions, and suggested a reference to the Fathers. But the King was not content with their authority; he appealed to the Pope, and to the decisions of half the universities of Europe. It seems very singular that a sovereign so unprincipled, unscrupulous, and

passionate, and yet so absolute and powerful as was Henry, should have wasted his time and money in seeking countenance to an act on which he was fully determined, and which countenance he never could reasonably hope to secure. But his character was made up of contradictions. His caprice, violence, and want of good faith, were strangely blended with superstition and reverence for the authority of the church.

Queen Catharine, besides being a virtuous and excellent woman, was powerfully allied, and was a zealous Catholic. Her repudiation, therefore, could not take place without offending the very persons whose favor the King was most anxious to conciliate, especially the Emperor Charles her nephew, the Pope, and all the high dignitaries and adherents of the church. Even Wolsey could not in honor favor the divorce, although it was his policy to please his master in everything.

Its difficulties.

In consequence of the scandal and offence so outrageous an act as the divorce of Catherine must necessarily produce throughout the civilized world, Henry long delayed to bring the matter to a crisis, being alike afraid of a war with Charles V., and of the anathemas of the Pope. Moreover, as the Pope had sent Cardinal Campeggio to London, to hold, with his legate Wolsey, a court to hear the case, he was not without hope in that quarter. But it was far from the Pope's intention to grant the divorce; as he was more afraid of Charles than of Henry.

This court settled nothing, and the King's wrath was now directed against Wolsey, whom he suspected of secretly thwarting his measures. Sprung from a low class, Wolsey had risen by tact, talent, and favorable circumstances, to be a royal favorite, and had successively obtained the appointments of Dean of York, Bishop of Lincoln, Archbishop of York, Lord Chancellor, and Papal Legate. He now possessed several abbeys, and immense revenues. He supported a train of 800 servants, and his delegated power was greater than any English subject had ever before possessed, for through him the royal favour almost exclusively flowed. To be thwarted

Disgrace of Wolsey.

Ch. 4. by one on whom he had heaped such benefits was more than Henry could bear, so he at once determined on his disgrace and ruin. In vain did the accomplished courtier surrender his palace, his treasures, his honors, and his offices, into the hands of him who gave them, without a single expostulation; in vain did he write abject letters to "his most gracious, most merciful, and most pious sovereign lord;" he died of a broken heart on his way to a prison and the scaffold. "Had I but served my God as diligently as I have served the King, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs,"—were the words of the dying cardinal; his sad confession on experiencing the vanity of human life. But the vindictive prince suffered no word of sorrow or regret to escape him, when he heard of the death of a prime minister, who for twenty years had been his intimate friend.

A. D. 1529.

Shortly after the disgrace of Wolsey, which happened nearly a year before his death (1529), three remarkable men began to figure in English politics and history. These were Sir Thomas More, Thomas Cranmer, and Thomas Cromwell. More was the most accomplished, most learned, and most enlightened of the three. He was a Catholic, but exemplary in his life, and charitable in his views. In moral elevation of character, and beautiful serenity of soul, the annals of the great men of his country furnish no superior. His extensive erudition and moral integrity alone secured him the official station which Wolsey had held, that of lord chancellor. He was the intimate friend of the King; and his conversation, so enlivened by wit, and so rich and varied in matter, caused his society to be universally sought. He discharged his duties with singular conscientiousness and ability; and no one ever had cause to complain that justice was not rendered him.

Sir Thomas More.

Cranmer's elevation was owing to a fortunate circumstance, rather than to his exalted merit. He happened to say, while tutor to a gentleman of the name of Cressy, in the hearing of Gardiner, then secretary of state, that the proper way to settle the difficulty about the divorce was, to appeal to learned

Thomas Cranmer.

men, who would settle the matter on the sole authority of the Bible, without reference to the Pope. This remark was reported to the King, and Cranmer was sent to reside with the father of Anne Boleyn, and was employed in writing a treatise to support his opinion. His ability led to further honors, until, on the death of Warham, Archbishop of Canterbury, he was appointed to the vacant see, the first office in dignity and importance in the kingdom, and from which no King, however absolute, could eject him, except by the loss of life. We shall hereafter see that, in all matters of religion, Cranmer was the ruling spirit in England until the accession of Mary.

Thomas Cromwell.

Cromwell's origin was even more obscure than that of Wolsey; but he received his education at one of the universities. We first hear of him as a clerk in an English factory at Antwerp, then as a soldier in the army of the Constable Bourbon when it sacked Rome, then as a clerk in a mercantile house in Venice, and then again as a lawyer in England, where he attracted the attention of Wolsey, who made him his solicitor, and employed him in the dissolution of the monasteries. He then became a member of the House of Commons, where his address and business talents were conspicuous. He was well received at court, and confirmed in the stewardship of the monasteries, after the disgrace of his master. His office brought him often into personal conference with the King; and, at one of these, he recommended him to deny the authority of the Pope altogether, and declare himself supreme head of the church. The boldness of this advice was congenial to the temper of the King, vexed by the opposition of Rome to his intended divorce, and Cromwell became a member of the privy council. His fortune was made by his seasonable advice.

Elevation of Anne Boleyn.

With such ministers as Cranmer and Cromwell, the measures of Henry were now prompt and bold. Queen Catharine was soon disposed of; she was divorced and disgraced, and Anne Boleyn was elevated to her throne (1533). The anathemas of the Pope, and the outcry of all Europe followed.

Ch. 4. A. D. 1535. Sir Thomas More resigned the seals, and retired to poverty and solitude. But he was not permitted to enjoy his retirement long. Refusing to take the oath of supremacy to Henry, as head of the church as well as of the state, he was executed, with other illustrious Catholics. The execution of More was the most cruel and uncalled-for act of the whole reign, and entailed on its author the execrations of all the learned and virtuous men in Europe, most of whom appreciated the transcendent excellencies of the murdered chancellor, the author of the Utopia, and the Boethius of his age.

The fulminations of the Pope only excited Henry to more decided opposition. The parliament, controlled by Cromwell, acknowledged him as the supreme head of the Church of England, and the separation from Rome was final and irrevocable.

First steps of the Reformation. The independence of the Church of England, effected in 1535, was followed by important consequences, and was the first step to the Reformation, afterwards perfected by Edward VI. But as these acts were prompted by political considerations, the reformers in England, during the reign of Henry VIII., should be considered chiefly in a political point of view. The separation from Rome, during the reign of this Prince, was not followed by the abolition of the Roman Catholic worship, nor by any change in the rites and ceremonies of that church. Neither was religious toleration secured. Everything was subservient to the royal conscience; a secular, instead of an ecclesiastical pope, reigned in England.

Suppression of monasteries. Henry now resolved to suppress the monasteries, both because they were notoriously corrupt, and because he wished to enrich himself and his courtiers with their wealth. As parliament was only an instrument of royalty at this time, it willingly lent its aid to the proposed spoliation. The nation was suddenly astounded with the intelligence that parliament had passed a bill, giving to the King and his heirs all the monastic establishments in the kingdom, which did not exceed two hundred pounds a year. Three hundred

and eighty thus fell at a blow, whereby the King was enriched to the extent of thirty-two thousand pounds a year, and one hundred thousand pounds in ready money—an immense sum in that age. By this suppression, perhaps called for, but exceedingly unjust and harsh, and in violation of all the rights of property, thousands were reduced to beggary and misery, while there was scarcely an eminent man in the kingdom who did not come in for a share of the plunder. Vast grants of land were bestowed by the King on his favorites and courtiers, in order to appease the nation; and the foundations of many of the great estates of the English nobility were thus laid. These spoliations led to many serious riots, especially in Lincolnshire, where at one place forty thousand rebels were under arms; but they were easily suppressed.

Ruin of the monks.

The rapacious King was not satisfied with the plunder he had secured, and, in 1539, the final suppression of all the monasteries in England was decreed. Then followed the seizure of all the church property in England connected with monasteries, such as shrines, relics, gold and silver vessels of immense value and rarity, lands, and churches. Canterbury, Bath, Merton, Stratford, Bury St. Edmonds, Glastonbury, and St. Albans, suffered most, and many beautiful monuments of Gothic architecture were levelled with the dust. Neither the church nor the universities profited much from this confiscation of property; only six new bishoprics were formed, and only fourteen abbeys were converted into cathedrals and collegiate churches. The King and his nobles were the only gainers by the spoil.

Henry unfriendly to further Reformation.

After renouncing the Pope's supremacy, and suppressing the monasteries, where were collected the treasures of the middle ages, one would naturally suppose that the King would have gone farther, and changed the religion of his people. But Henry hated Luther and his doctrines. Reform therefore proceeded no farther in his reign; while, on the other hand, he caused a decree to pass both houses of his timid, complying parliament, by which the doctrines of transubstantiation, the

Ch. 4. communion in one kind, the celibacy of the clergy, masses, and auricular confession, were established; and any departure from, or denial of these, subjected the offender to the punishment of death.

A.D. 1540 to 1547.

We will not describe the new domestic difficulties of the King, since they belong to the internal history of England, rather than to the progress of European civilization. The ordinary histories have made all familiar with the cruel and iniquitous execution of Anne Boleyn, for suspected inconstancy; the third marriage of Henry with Jane Seymour; her death, after having given birth to a prince of Wales, afterwards Edward VI.; the fourth marriage of the king with Anne of Cleves; his disappointment and disgust, which led to her divorce; his fifth marriage with Catharine Howard; her execution; and his final marriage with Catharine Parr, who survived her husband.

His last years.

The last years of any tyrant are always melancholy, and those of Henry were embittered by jealousies and domestic troubles. His finances were deranged, his treasury was exhausted, and his subjects were discontented. He was often at war with the Scots, as well as with different continental powers. He added religious persecution to his other bad traits, and executed, for their opinions, some of the best people in the kingdom. His father had made him the richest sovereign of Europe; he had seized the abbey lands, and extorted heavy sums from his oppressed people; and yet he was poor. All his wishes were apparently gratified, and yet he was the most miserable man in his dominions. He had exhausted all the sources of pleasure, and nothing remained but satiety and disgust. His mind and his body were alike diseased. It was dangerous to approach this "corrupt mass of dying tyranny." It was impossible to please him, and the least contradiction drove him into fits of madness and frenzy.

One of his last acts was the attainder and order for the execution of the Duke of Norfolk, the first nobleman of the kingdom, but the tyrant died before the sentence was carried

Ch. 4.

A. D. 1547.

into effect. Thousands perished by the axe of the executioner during his disgraceful reign; some of them the lights of the age, and the glory of their country.

By nature, Henry was probably amiable, generous, and munificent. But his temper was spoiled by self-indulgence and incessant flattery. The moroseness he exhibited in his latter days was partly the effect of physical disease, brought about by intemperance and gluttony. He was faithful to his wives, so long as he lived with them; and, while he doted on them, listened to their advice. But few of his advisers dared to tell him the truth; and Cranmer himself can never be exculpated from flattering his perverted conscience. He expired, in agony, January, 1547, in the thirty-eighth year of his reign, and the fifty-sixth of his age, and was buried, with great pomp, in St. George's Chapel, Windsor Castle. His son, Edward VI., a boy, nine years of age, reigned in his stead, under a council of regency, appointed by the late King, and composed of sixteen persons, at the head of which, as Protector, was the Earl of Hertford, uncle of the King, who afterwards became Duke of Somerset. Cranmer, as Archbishop of Canterbury, was also of their council, and had great weight in the management of affairs. He, however, especially devoted himself to the completion of the Reformation, having now ample scope to prosecute that work, which, in his heart, he had long desired to effect.

Character.

Succession of Edward VI.

We are obliged to omit reference to the civil troubles which immediately followed; the ambition of Somerset, his forced resignation of the Protectorate, the rise of his rival Warwick, who became Duke of Northumberland, the execution of Somerset, the schemes of Northumberland, and the rivalries of the great nobles. It is the English Reformation for which the reign of Edward is memorable.

It was the good fortune of Cranmer to accomplish two great things which gave glory to the Reformation — the removal of Roman abuses, and the establishment of the evangelical creed. He placed the Bible in all the churches, and

The deeds of Cranmer.

Ch. 4. freely circulated it among the people, abolished the old Latin service, and substituted his inimitable liturgy, compiled from all that was profound and devotional in the public worship of God for 1,500 years. He destroyed images, and abolished auricular confession, the celibacy of the clergy, masses for the dead, imposing altars, and pompous ceremonies. He caused the communion to be administered in both kinds to the laity, prepared a book of homilies for the clergy, curtailed the authority of the ecclesiastical courts, invited eminent scholars from the Continent to settle in England, founded new professorships in the universities, and introduced a uniform creed in the form of forty-two articles, the same, in substance, with the thirty-nine articles of the present liturgy. He corresponded with learned men throughout Europe, listened to the voice of experience, healed the disorders of the kingdom, and suppressed anarchy and immorality. These are the acts, by which he will be finally judged by posterity.

A. D. 1547 to 1553.

Charac- of Cranmer.

In carrying out these great reforms, he was mild and tolerant. Comparatively few suffered from religious persecution, in an age when punishment for heresy was generally advocated. His treatment of his greatest enemies was not sanguinary, as in the case of Bishops Gardiner and Bonner. Nor did he abuse his great powers for self-exaltation. He wished to add no new dignities to the see of Canterbury. It seemed to be his prevailing desire to free England from the superstitions of the Middle Ages; and, in conjunction with Bishops Latimer and Ridley, and other good men imbued with his spirit, he carried the work of Reform as far as was then practicable, and probably as far as has ever since been desired by a majority of his countrymen. In another reign, and under peculiar circumstances, he exhibited great infirmities and weakness, even recanting, for a time, the principles he had spent his life in defending. But it is the privilege of great characters to be judged by their works in aid of civilization, not by their infirmities and mistakes.

Death of Edward VI.

Unfortunately, the young King died early (July 6, 1553),

at a period when his life was of the most importance to the Protestant cause, and when Cranmer was in the height of his usefulness and fame. Yet there is no period of corresponding length when such great changes were made so wisely, with such little bloodshed, and on a firmer basis. Nor was there ever a period of six years when such magnificent charities were endowed in various parts of the realm.

The succession to the throne fell to the Princess Mary, or, as princesses were then called, the *Lady* Mary; nor could she be excluded from the enjoyment of her rights. Edward, acting under the influence of Northumberland, had bequeathed the crown to Lady Jane Grey, and this ambitious nobleman having contrived to keep the death of the King secret for two days, and to secure from the mayor and aldermen of London a promise to respect the will, had her proclaimed Queen of England. "So far, however, was she from any desire of this advancement, that she began to act her part of royalty with many tears, thus plainly showing to those who had access to her, that she was forced by her relations and friends to this high but dangerous post." She was accomplished, beautiful and amiable, devoted to her young husband, and very fond of Plato, whom she read in the original.

Lady Jane Grey.

Mary's friends quickly exerted themselves, and her cause—the cause of legitimacy rather than of Catholicism—gained ground. Northumberland was unequal to the crisis, and found himself very feebly sustained. His forces were suppressed, his schemes failed, and his hopes fled. From rebellion to the scaffold there is but one step; and this great nobleman suffered the fate of Somerset, his former rival. His execution confirms one of the most striking facts in the history of absolute monarchies, namely, that no subject, or confederacy of subjects, however powerful, stand much chance in resisting the claims of a legitimate prince. Mary was apparently a powerless woman when Lady Jane Grey was proclaimed Queen by the party of Northumberland, and yet she had but to signify her intention to claim her rights, and the

Fall of Northumberland.

Ch. 4. nation was prostrate at her feet. The Protestant party dreaded her accession, but loyalty was a stronger principle than even Protestantism, and she was soon firmly established on the throne of Henry VIII. Still her reign must be regarded as a reaction in the progress of Protestantism, and it will be chiefly remembered for its religious persecutions.

A. D. 1553.

Religious persecution.

A total change in the administration immediately followed, which affected both the political and religious state of the country. Those who had languished in confinement on account of their religion obtained their liberty, and were elevated to power. Gardiner, Bonner, and other Roman Catholic bishops, were restored to their sees, while Cranmer, Ridley, Latimer, Hooper, Coverdale, and other eminent Protestants, were imprisoned. All the statutes of Edward VI. pertaining to religion were repealed, and the queen sent assurances to the Pope of her allegiance. Cardinal Pole, descended from the royal family of England, and a man of great probity, moderation, and worth, was appointed legate of the Pope. Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, was made Lord Chancellor, and became prime minister. He and his associates recommended violent measures, and a reign unparalleled in England for religious persecution commenced.

Marriage of the Queen.

Soon after the Queen's accession she married Philip, son of the Emperor Charles, and heir of the Spanish monarchy. This marriage, brought about by the intrigues of the Emperor, and favored by the Catholic party, was acceptable to Mary, whose issue would inherit the thrones of Spain and England. But ambitious matches are seldom happy, especially when the wife is much older than the husband, as was the case in this instance. Mary was attached to Philip, but he treated her with great indifference.

This Spanish match, the most brilliant of that age, failed to satisfy the English people, who had no notion of becoming the subjects of the King of Spain. In consequence of this disaffection, a rebellion broke out, under Sir Thomas Wyatt, in which the Lady Jane Grey and her husband became im-

plicated, though unjustly. The rebellion was easily suppressed, and the leaders sent to the Tower. Then followed one of the most melancholy executions of this reign—that of the Lady Jane Grey, who had been reprieved three months before. The queen urged the plea of self-defence, and the safety of the realm—the same plea that Queen Elizabeth, in after times, urged in reference to the Queen of Scots. Her unfortunate fate excited great compassion, and she suffered with a martyr's constancy. The Duke of Suffolk, the father of Lady Jane, was also executed. The Princess Elizabeth expected to be sacrificed, both because she was a Protestant, and the next heiress to the throne, but she carefully avoided giving offence, and managed with such consummate prudence, that she was finally preserved.

Ch. 4. A. D. 1555. Execution of Lady Jane Grey.

The year 1555 opened gloomily for the Protestants. The prisons were crowded with the victims of religious persecution, and bigoted inquisitors had only to prepare their fagots and stakes. More than a thousand ministers were ejected from their livings, and such as escaped further persecution fled to the Continent. No fewer than two hundred and eighty-eight persons, among whom were five bishops, twenty-one clergymen, fifty-five women, and four children, were burned for religious opinions, besides many thousands who suffered various other forms of persecution. The constancy of Ridley, Latimer, and Hooper has immortalized their names as illustrious martyrs; but the greatest of all the victims was Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury. The most artful promises were held out to him, to induce him to retract. Life and dignities were promised if he would deny the faith. In an evil hour he yielded to the temptation. Timid, heart-broken, and old, the love of life and the fear of death were stronger than the voice of conscience and duty. But when he found he was mocked, he came to himself, and suffered patiently and heroically. His death was glorious, as his life was useful; and the sincerity of his repentance redeemed his memory from shame.

Fires of Smithfield.

Death of Cranmer.

Ch. 4. A. D. 1555 to 1558. Cranmer may be considered as the great author of the English Reformation, and he was certainly one of the most enlightened men of his age, although timid, politic, and time-serving. The Reformation produced no perfect characters in any country. Some great defect blemished the lives of almost all the illustrious men who then justly earned imperishable glory. But the characters of such men as Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer, strikingly contrast with those of Gardiner and Bonner. The former did, indeed, show some lenity after a time, but Bonner gloated to the last in the blood which he caused to be shed. He even whipped Protestant prisoners with his own hands, and once pulled out the beard of an heretical weaver, and held his finger in the flame of a candle, till the veins shrunk and burnt, that his victim might realize what the pain of burning was. So blind and cruel is religious intolerance.

Effects of persecution. But Providence ordered that this persecution should prepare the way for a movement of a very different character in the subsequent reign. The fires of Smithfield, and the cruelties of the pillory and the prison, opened the eyes of the nation to the spirit of the old religion, and caused the flight of many distinguished men to Frankfort and Geneva, where they learned the principles of both religious and civil liberty. "The blood of the martyrs proved the seed of the church"—a sublime truth, revealed to Cranmer and Ridley amid the fires which consumed their bodies; and not to them only, but to all who witnessed their serenity, and saw in them the "mortal put on immortality." "It was not," says Milman, "until Christ was laid in his rock-hewn sepulchre, that the history of Christianity commenced." We might add, It was not until the fires of Smithfield were lighted, that great spiritual truths took hold of the popular mind, and that intense religious earnestness appeared, which has ever since characterized the English nation. The progress which man makes is generally seen through disaster, suffering, and sorrow. Such is the teaching of history in all ages.

Ch. 4.

A. D. 1558.

The last years of the reign of Mary were miserable to herself, and disastrous to the nation. Her royal husband did not return her warm affections, and left England for ever. She embarked in a ruinous war with France, and gained nothing but disgrace. Her health failed, and her disposition became gloomy. Intolerant in her religious opinions, she thought more of restoring Romanism, than of promoting the interests of her kingdom. Her heart was bruised and broken, and the remainder of her life was a succession of sorrows. It is fashionable to call this unfortunate Queen the "Bloody Mary," and few allow her a single virtue; yet she was affectionate, sincere, high-minded, and she shrunk from the dissimulation and intrigue which characterized her energetic successor. Mary was capable of the warmest friendship; was attentive and considerate to her servants, charitable to the poor, and always kind to the unfortunate, when not blinded by her religious prejudices. She had many accomplishments, and a severe taste. Her bigotry ruined her, and the nation hailed with enthusiasm the accession of Elizabeth, on the 17th of November, 1558, by whom the Protestant religion was immediately restored.

Last years of Mary.

Accession of Elizabeth.

With this re-establishment of Protestantism on the basis formed by Cranmer and his associates, we take leave, for the present, of Elizabeth, and now turn to survey the progress of affairs in France.

REFERENCES.—Hume and Lingard are the two works which may be considered as standards. The "Pictorial History of England" is also very valuable. Miss Strickland's "Lives of the Queens of England" are much admired, though too favorable to Mary. Burnet's "History of the Reformation" has not been displaced. The lives of Wolsey, Sir Thomas More, and Cranmer, should be carefully read, as also Fox's "Book of Martyrs."

CHAPTER V.

THE CIVIL WARS OF FRANCE, OR THE HUGUENOTIC CONTEST.

Ch. 5. THE history of France, from the death of Francis I. to the peace of Verviens, 1598, when Henry IV. had triumphed over all his enemies, and secured the recognition of his subjects, is virtually the history of religious contentions and persecutions, and of those civil wars which grew out of them. The Huguenotic contest is therefore a great historical subject, and as such will be presented in connection with the history of France, until the death of Henry IV., the greatest of the French monarchs, and long the illustrious head of the Protestant party.

A. D. 1547 to 1598.

Huguenotic contest.

The reformed doctrines first began to spread in France during the reign of Francis. As early as 1523, many were burned at the stake for professing them, among whom the descendants of the Waldenses were the most numerous. These doctrines were the same in substance as those of the Swiss reformers.

French Reformers.

While this persecution was raging, John Calvin fled from France to Ferrara, from which city he proceeded to Geneva. This was in the year 1536, when his theological career commenced by the publication of the Institutes, which were dedicated to Francis I. These Institutes, the great text book of the Swiss and French reformers, were distasteful to the French King, and he gave fresh orders for the persecution of the Protestants. Notwithstanding the hostility of Francis, however, the new doctrines spread, and were embraced by some of

the most distinguished of the French nobility. The successor of Francis I. was his son, Henry II., during whose reign the new faith was embraced by a very respectable party both at court and in the army. The King sought in vain to arrest its progress; his wife, the celebrated Catharine de Medici, inciting him to the most cruel atrocities. His accidental death at a tournament, in 1559, for a while put a stop to persecution. But his successor, Francis II., the husband of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland, acting under the direction of his advisers, soon renewed it, and the Huguenots, driven to despair, took up arms in their own defence.

Catharine de Medici.

Francis II. soon died; and his brother, Charles IX., a boy of ten years of age, succeeded to the French crown, when the Queen mother, now all powerful, commenced the most unsparing religious persecution recorded in the history of modern Europe.

Charles IX.

At the head of the Catholic party were the Queen Regent, the Cardinal of Lorraine, the Duke of Guise, his brother, and the constable Montmorency. They had the support of the priesthood, of the Spaniards, and a great majority of the nation.

The Protestants were headed by the King of Navarre, father of Henry IV., the Prince of Condé, his brother, and Admiral Coligny; and they had the sympathy of the University, and the Parliament, as well as that of the Protestants of Germany and England.

Civil wars.

Between these parties the struggle lasted for forty years, with various success. Persecution provoked resistance, but resistance did not lead to liberty. Still the Protestants had hope, and, as they could always assemble a large army, they maintained their ground. Their conduct was not marked by the religious earnestness which characterized the Puritans, or by the same strength of religious principle: political motives mingled with religious. The contest was a struggle for the ascendancy of rival chiefs, as well as for the establishment of reformed doctrines. The Bourbons hated the Guises, and the Guises resolved to destroy the Bourbons.

Ch. 5. A. D. 1572. Charles before long discovered that civil war only wasted the resources of the country, without weakening the Protestants; he therefore made peace, but at the same time formed, under the influence of his mother, a plan for their extermination by treachery. In order to cover his designs, he gave his sister, Margaret de Valois, in marriage to the King of Navarre, first Prince of the blood, then nineteen years of age. Admiral Coligny was also invited to Paris, and treated with distinguished courtesy.

Massacre of St. Bartholomew. It was during the festivities which succeeded the marriage of the King of Navarre that Coligny was murdered, and the signal for the horrid slaughter of St. Bartholomew was given. At midnight, August 23, 1572, the great bell at the Hotel de Ville began to toll; torches were placed in the windows, chains were drawn across the streets, and armed bodies collected around the hotels. The doors of the houses were broken open, and neither age, condition, nor sex was spared. The massacre at Paris was followed by one equally brutal in the provinces. Sixty thousand people, according to Sully, were slain in cold blood. The King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé only escaped through their relationship to the King, and by renouncing the Protestant religion.

Most of the European courts expressed their detestation of this foul crime; but the Pope went in grand procession to his cathedral, and ordered a *Te Deum* to be sung in commemoration of an event which steeped his cause in infamy.

The Protestants, though nearly exterminated, again rallied; the King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé renounced the religion which had been forced on them by fear of death, and prosecuted a bloody civil war, with the firm resolution of never abandoning it until religious liberty was guaranteed.

Death of Charles IX. Meanwhile, Charles died, as it was supposed, by poison. His last hours were wretched, and his remorse for the massacre of St. Bartholomew filled his soul with agony. He beheld frightful spectres, and dreamed horrid dreams; in

imagination he constantly saw heaps of livid bodies, and his ears were assailed with imaginary groans. Worn out by these horrors, he expired in misery, having first solemnly warned the King of Navarre to beware of Catharine. Ch. 5. A. D. 1574 to 1589.

Charles was succeeded by his brother, the King of Poland, under the title of Henry III. The persecutions of the Huguenots were now renewed, and the old scenes of treachery, assassination, and war, were acted over again. The cause of religion was lost sight of in a labyrinth of contentions, jealousies, and plots. Intrigues and factions were endless. Nearly all the leaders, on both sides, perished by the sword or the dagger. The Prince of Condé, the Duke of Guise, and his brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine, were assassinated. Shortly after, died the chief mover of all these troubles, Catharine de Medici, a woman of talents and persuasive eloquence, but of most unprincipled ambition, perfidious, cruel, and dissolute. She encouraged the licentiousness of the court, and even the worst vices of her sons, that she might make them subservient to her designs. All her passions were subordinate to her calculations of policy, and every womanly virtue was suppressed by the desire of wielding a government which she had usurped. Renewed civil wars. Death of Catharine.

Henry III. soon followed her to the grave. His death, which took place by assassination in the year 1589, secured the throne to the King of Navarre, who now took the title of Henry IV.

This monarch, the first of the Bourbon line, was descended from Robert, the sixth son of St. Louis, who had married the daughter and heiress of John of Burgundy and Agnes of Bourbon. He was thirty-six years of age when he became king, and had passed through great experiences and many sorrows. Thus far he had contended for Protestant opinions, and was the acknowledged leader of the Protestant party in France. But a life of contention and bloodshed, and the new career opened to him as King of France, cooled his religious ardor, and he did not hesitate to accept the condition which the French nobles imposed, before they would take the oaths Accession of Henry IV.

Ch. 5. of allegiance. This was, that he should abjure Protestantism. "My kingdom," said he, "is well worth a mass."

A. D. 1589 to 1598.

It is justly laid to his reproach, by Protestants, that he renounced his religion for worldly elevation. But there were palliations for his conduct, which it is not now easy to appreciate. It is well known that the illustrious Sully, his prime minister, and, through life, a zealous Protestant, approved of his course. It was certainly clear that, without becoming a Catholic, he never could peaceably enjoy his crown, and France would be rent, for another generation, by those civil wars which none lamented more than Henry himself. It must also be remembered that the King, though professing Protestantism, was never a religious man, being devoted to pleasure, and to schemes of ambition.

Henry abjures Protestantism.

From the act itself great calamities resulted to France. The Huguenots were lulled into a deceitful security, and soon became utterly unable to cope with the centralized monarchy, of which Cardinal de Richelieu laid the foundation. Nor did the King's conversion to Catholicism immediately result in the tranquillity of the distracted country. The Catholics would not believe in his sincerity, and many battles had to be fought before he was in peaceable enjoyment of his throne. But civil war is always hateful, especially to the inhabitants of great cities; so the struggle was brief, Paris and the chief places in the kingdom acknowledging his sway. The King of Spain, the great Catholic prelates, and the Pope, finally perceived how hopeless it was to contend against a man of great military experience, with a devoted army and an enthusiastic capital on his side.

Results of this apostacy.

The peace of Verviens, in 1598, left the King without foreign or domestic enemies. From that period to his death, his life was devoted to the welfare of his country.

His first act was the celebrated Edict of Nantes, by which the Huguenots had quiet and undisturbed residence, the free exercise of their religion and of public worship, except in the court, the army, and within five leagues of Paris. They were

Edict of Nantes.

eligible to all offices, civil and military; and all public prose- Ch. 5.
cutions on account of religion were dropped. This edict also A. D. promulgated a general amnesty for political offences, and 1598. restored property and titles, as before the war; but the Pro- to testants were prohibited from printing controversial books, 1610. and were compelled to pay tithes to the established clergy.

The twelve years which succeeded the Edict of Nantes were eminently favorable to civilization in France. The finances were arranged by Sully with so much skill, that the king paid off a debt of 300 millions of livres, and had, on his death, nearly fifty millions in his treasury. The taxes were reduced one-half, the crown lands redeemed, the arsenals stored, the fortifications rebuilt, churches erected, canals dug, and improvements made in every part of the kingdom. Under the direction of this able minister the laws were enforced, robbery and vagrancy were nearly stopped, and agriculture received a great impulse. Economy was the order of the day; the King himself set an illustrious example, and even dressed in gray cloth, with a doublet of taffeta without embroidery, dispensed with all superfluity at his table, and dismissed all useless servants.

This management and economy enabled the King to make Internal improvements. great improvements, besides settling deranged finances. He built innumerable churches, bridges, convents, hospitals, fortresses, and ships. Some of the finest palaces which adorn Paris were erected by him. He was also the patron of learning, the benefits of which he appreciated. He himself was well acquainted with the writings of the ancients. He was particularly fond of the society of the learned, with whom he conversed with freedom and affability. He increased the libraries, opened public schools, invited distinguished foreigners to Paris, and rewarded them with stipends. Lipsius, Scaliger, and De Thou, were the ornaments of his court.

And his tender regard to the happiness and welfare of his subjects was as marked as his generous appreciation of literature and science. It was his ambition to be the father of his

Ch. 5. people; and his memorable saying, "Yes, I will so manage matters that the poorest peasant in my kingdom may eat meat each day in the week, and, moreover, be enabled to put a fowl in the pot on a Sunday," has alone embalmed his memory in the affections of the French nation, who, of all their monarchs, are most partial to Henry IV.

A.D. 1610.

Assassination of Henry.

But Henry was not permitted by Providence to prosecute his benevolent designs. He was assassinated by a man whom he had never injured—by the most unscrupulous of all misguided men—a religious bigot. The Jesuit Ravaillac, in a mood, as it is to be hoped, bordering on madness, perpetrated the foul deed. But Henry only suffered the fate of nearly all the distinguished actors in those civil and religious contentions which desolated France for forty years. He died in 1610, at the age of fifty-seven, having reigned twenty-one years, nine of which were spent in uninterrupted warfare.

Effects of his death.

By his death the kingdom was thrown into deep and undissembled mourning. Many fell speechless in the streets when the intelligence of his assassination was known; others died from excess of grief. All felt that they had lost more than a father, and nothing was anticipated but storms and commotions.

By Margaret, who proved inconstant, and from whom he was separated, he had no children. By his second wife, Marie de Medici, he had three children, the oldest of whom was a child, who now became King, under the title of Louis XIII.

References.—Sismondi has written the best French History on this period, but reference may be made to the "Mémoires de Sully, Mézeray, De Thou, Péréfixe, D'Aubigné, and Matthieu." Browning's "History of the Huguenots" is the best in English; the Histories of Rankin and Crowe may also be consulted.

CHAPTER VI.

ENGLISH HISTORY UNDER ELIZABETH.

Ch. 6. A. D. 1559.

WITH the reign of Elizabeth commences a new era in English history—the triumph of Protestant principles, the revival of learning, the diffusion of knowledge among the people, the spirit of commercial enterprise, and the general improvement of society. It was a brilliant period, full of enthusiasm, hope, and life. Illustrious poets, philosophers, and statesmen adorned the age, and raised England to a height of glory not before attained.

Accession of Elizabeth.

Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII., by Anne Boleyn, was twenty-five years of age when she ascended the throne, and was crowned the 15th of January, 1559. She soon assembled parliament, selected her ministers, and devoted herself to the settlement of the affairs of the realm, which were in an embarrassed state, both in a religious and civil point of view.

As soon as the Protestant religion was established, the Queen turned her attention towards Scotland, from which much trouble was expected, and which was then governed by Mary, daughter of James V., who had succeeded her father while a mere infant.

Claims of Mary Stuart.

According to the canonical laws of the Roman church, the claim of Mary Stuart to the English throne was preferable to that of her cousin Elizabeth. Her uncles, the Guises, represented that Anne Boleyn's marriage had never been lawful, and that Elizabeth was therefore illegitimate. In an evil hour, Mary and her husband (Francis II., of France) quartered the arms of England with their own, and assumed

Ch. 6. the titles of King and Queen of Scotland and England. This excited the indignation of Elizabeth, who was further enraged by the insult which the Pope had inflicted, in declaring her birth illegitimate. She therefore resolved to gratify at once both her ambition and her vengeance; and encouraged by her ministers, who wished to advance the Protestant interest in the kingdom, she managed with consummate art to undermine the authority of Mary in Scotland, now distracted by religious as well as civil commotions.

A. D. 1560 to 1567.

Scottish Reformers.

The Scotch reformers had been animated with a zeal unknown to Cranmer and his associates. The leaders had been trained at Geneva, under the guidance of Calvin, and had imbibed his opinions, and were, therefore, resolved to carry on the work of reform after the model of the Genevan church. Accordingly pictures, statues, ornaments, painted glass, and cathedrals, all of which Cranmer spared, were furiously destroyed by the Scotch reformers, who considered them as parts of an idolatrous worship. The antipathy to bishops and clerical vestments was equally strong, and a sweeping reform was carried on under the dictatorship of Knox.

But his measures had been resisted, and a civil war was the result. This war was at its height when the Queen Regent died, and Mary, who was now a widow, returned to her distracted kingdom. The Protestant party was in the ascendant, and she was compelled to support both Knox and the great Protestant nobles.

Marriage of Mary

Then followed her marriage with her cousin Lord Darnley (1565), who was incapable of retaining her affections, being disgraced by low tastes and profligate habits. This marriage was soon succeeded by disgust and coldness, by mutual jealousies, by the assassination of Rizzio, and finally by the murder of Darnley himself. Mary was then rash enough to marry the man who was probably the murderer of her second husband, the infamous Bothwell, an act which gave great scandal and renewed the flames of civil war.

Elizabeth, both from resentment and jealousy, fomented these disturbances, which finally resulted in the surrender of the Scottish Queen to the insurgent forces, by whom she was imprisoned in the castle of Lochleven, and deprived of all authority. Ch. 6. A. D. 1568 to 1587.

The unfortunate Queen suffered great unkindness in her lonely confinement, and Knox, with the more zealous of his party, clamored for her death, as an adulteress and a murderer. She succeeded in escaping from her prison, raised an army, marched against the regent, was defeated at the battle of Langside, fled to England, and became, in May, 1568, the prisoner-guest of her envious rival. Elizabeth obtained the object of her desires. But the captivity of Mary, confined in Tutbury Castle, against all the laws of hospitality and justice, gave rise to incessant disturbances both in England and Scotland. And these form no inconsiderable part of the history of England for seventeen years. Scotland was the scene of anarchy, growing out of the contentions and jealousies of rival chieftains, who stooped to every crime that appeared to facilitate their objects. In 1570 the regent Murray was assassinated. He was succeeded by his enemy the Earl of Lennox, who, in his turn, was shot by an assassin. The Earl of Mar succeeded him, but lived only a year. Morton then became regent, the reward of many crimes; but retribution at last overtook him, being executed when James assumed the sovereignty. Flight of Mary.

Meanwhile, the unfortunate Mary pined in hopeless captivity. It was natural for her to seek release, and also for her friends to desire to help her. Among those friends was the Duke of Norfolk, the first nobleman in England, and a zealous Catholic. He aspired to her hand; but Elizabeth chose to consider his courtship as a treasonable act, and Norfolk was arrested. On being afterwards released, he plotted for the liberation of Mary, and his intrigues brought him to the block. The unfortunate captive, wearied and impatient, naturally sought the assistance of foreign powers. Her captivity.

Ch. 6. A. D. 1587. She had her agents in Rome, France, Spain, and the Low Countries. The Catholics in England espoused her cause, and a conspiracy was formed to deliver her, to assassinate Elizabeth, and to restore the Catholic religion. From the fact that Mary was privy to that part of the plot which concerned her own deliverance, she was brought to trial as a criminal, found guilty by a court incompetent to sit on her case, and executed without remorse, on the 8th of February, 1587.

Execution of Mary.

Few persons have excited more commiseration than this unfortunate Queen, both on account of her exalted rank, and her many accomplishments. Whatever obloquy she merited for her acts as Queen of Scotland, no one can blame her for meditating escape from the power of her zealous but more fortunate rival; and her execution is a blot on the character of the Queen of England.

War with Spain.

Next to the troubles with Scotland, growing out of the interference of Elizabeth, the great political events of the reign were the long and protracted war with Spain, and the Irish rebellion. Both of these events were important.

Spain was at this time governed by Philip II., one of the most bigoted Catholics of the age, who was allied with Catharine de Medici, of France, for the entire suppression of Protestantism. She had incited her son Charles IX. to the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and Philip now established the Inquisition in Flanders. This measure provoked an insurrection in 1566, to suppress which the Duke of Alva, who had been one of the most celebrated of the generals of Charles V., was sent into the Netherlands with a large army, and almost unlimited powers. The cruelties of Alva were unparalleled. In six years eighteen thousand persons perished by the hands of the executioner, and Alva counted on the entire suppression of Protestantism by the mere force of armies. He could estimate the physical resources of the people, but he could not measure the degree of their resistance when animated by the spirit of liberty or religion. Providence, too, appeared on their behalf.

Cruelties of Alva in the Netherlands.

A great leader sprang up among the suffering Hollanders, now almost driven to despair—the celebrated William of Nassau, Prince of Orange. He appeared as the champion of the oppressed; they rallied around his standard, fought with desperate bravery, opened the dikes upon their cultivated fields, expelled their invaders, and laid the foundation of their liberties. But they could not have withstood the gigantic power of the Spanish monarchy, then in the fulness of its strength, and the most powerful in Europe, had it not been for aid rendered by Elizabeth. She compassionated their sufferings, and had respect for their cause. She entered into an alliance with them, defensive and offensive, and the Netherlands became the great theatre of war, even after they had thrown off the Spanish yoke. But although the United Provinces in the end obtained their liberty, they suffered incredible hardships, and lost some of the finest of their cities, Antwerp among the rest, long the rival of Amsterdam, and the scene of Rubens' labors.

Resistance under William of Orange.

The assistance which Elizabeth rendered to the Hollanders provoked the resentment of Philip II., which was greatly increased by the legalized piracies of Sir Francis Drake in the West Indies and on the coasts of South America. Philip, therefore, declared war with England, and made immense preparations to subdue it. But the preparations of Elizabeth to resist were also great, and Drake performed brilliant exploits on the sea, among other things, destroying one hundred ships in the bay of Cadiz, and taking immense spoil. At this juncture Elizabeth summoned a great council of war, at which the accomplished Sir Walter Raleigh took a leading part. His advice was to meet the Spaniards on the sea. Although the royal navy consisted, at this time, of only thirty-six sail, such vigorous measures were prosecuted, that one hundred and ninety-one ships were soon collected, manned by seventeen thousand four hundred seamen. The merchants of London granted thirty ships and ten thousand men, and all England was aroused to meet the expected danger. Never

Military preparations.

Ch. 6. A. D. 1588 to 1598.

was patriotism more signally evinced, never were more decisive proofs given of the popularity of a sovereign. Elizabeth, indeed, was always popular with the nation; for with all her ceremony, and state, and rudeness to the Commons, she never violated the laws, or irritated the people by oppressive exactions. Her despotism was never grievous; it had all the benignity of a paternal government. Capricious and arbitrary as Elizabeth was, in regard to some unfortunate individuals who provoked her hatred or her jealousy, still she sedulously guarded the interests of the nation, and listened to the counsel of patriotic and able ministers. When England was threatened with a Spanish invasion, there was not a corner of the land which did not rise to protect a beloved sovereign; nor was there a single spot, where a landing might be effected, around which an army of twenty thousand men could not be rallied in forty-eight hours.

Defeat of the Armada.

Philip, nevertheless, expected the complete conquest of England; and as his "Invincible Armada" of one hundred and thirty ships left the mouth of the Tagus, commanded by Medina Sidonia, and manned by the noblest troops of Spain, he fancied his hour of triumph was at hand. But his hopes proved dreams. The armada met with nothing but misfortunes both in battle and from storms. Only fifty ships returned to Spain. An immense booty was divided among the English sailors, and Elizabeth, in her turn, sent a large fleet to Spain the following year (1589), under the command of Drake, which, after burning a few towns, returned ingloriously to England, with a loss of ten thousand men. The war was continued with various success till 1598, when a peace was negotiated. The same year died Philip II., and Lord Burleigh, a statesman who, for forty years, had directed the councils of Elizabeth, and to whose voice she always listened, even when he was opposed by such favorites as Leicester and Essex. Burleigh was a man admirably adapted to his station and his times,—cool, sagacious, politic and pacific; skilful in the details of business, competent to advise, but not

Death of Philip II. and Lord Burleigh.

aspiring to command. He was unquestionably of great service to Elizabeth, and she rewarded him splendidly.

The attention of the Queen had long been anxiously directed to the affairs of Ireland, which had been conquered by Henry II. in the year 1170, but over which only an imperfect sovereignty had been exercised. The Irish princes and nobles, divided among themselves, paid indeed the exterior marks of obedience, but they kept the country in a state of insurrection.

Irish rebellion.

Hugh O'Neale, the head of a powerful clan, who had been raised to the dignity of Earl of Tyrone, greatly fomented these discontents, and at length excited a dangerous rebellion. Hostilities of the most sanguinary character commenced. The Queen sent over her favorite, the Earl of Essex, with an army of twenty thousand men, to crush the rebels. Essex was unsuccessful. His successor, Lord Mountjoy, eventually succeeded in restoring the Queen's authority, but not until Ireland had been devastated with fire and sword, and suffered every aggravation of accumulated calamities.

Disgrace of Essex.

Meanwhile, Essex, who had returned to England against the Queen's orders, was treated with coldness, deprived of his employments, and sentenced to imprisonment. This was more than the haughty favorite could bear, accustomed as he had been to royal favor. At first he acquiesced in his punishment, with every mark of penitence, and Elizabeth was beginning to relax in her severity, for she never intended to ruin him; but he soon gave vent to his violent temper, indulged in great liberties of speech, and threw off all appearance of duty and respect. He even engaged in treasonable designs, and corresponded with James VI. of Scotland about his succession. His proceedings were discovered, and he was summoned before the Privy Council. Instead of obedience, he armed himself and his followers, and in conjunction with some discontented nobles, and about three hundred gentlemen, attempted to excite an insurrection in London, where he was very popular with the citizens. He was captured and committed to the Tower, with the Earl of Southampton. These

His treasonable attempt.

Ch. 6. rash but brave noblemen were tried by their peers, condemned as guilty of high treason, and Essex was privately beheaded in the Tower. It was at this trial that Bacon appeared against his old patron, and likened him to the Duke of Guise. The great lawyer Coke, who was then Attorney-General, compared him to Catiline.

A. D. 1603.

Death of Elizabeth.

Elizabeth wept for the fate of the nobleman she had loved. After his death she never regained her spirits, and melancholy was visible in her countenance. All her actions showed a deeply settled inward grief. She survived the execution of Essex two years, having lived long enough to feel that, in spite of all her glory and power, she was not exempted from drinking the cup of bitterness.

Her policy.

Whatever unamiable qualities she may have evinced as a woman, and in spite of her vanity, and jealousy, and imperious temper, her reign was one of the most glorious in the annals of her country. The policy of Burleigh increased the resources of the kingdom. The taxes, never oppressive, were raised without murmur; the people were loyal and contented; the Protestant religion was established on a firm foundation; and a constellation of great men shed around the throne the bright rays of their immortal genius.

Persecution of Nonconformists.

The most unhappy peculiarity of her reign was the persecution of the Nonconformists, which, if not sanguinary, was irritating and severe. For some time after the accession of Elizabeth the Puritans were permitted to indulge in their peculiarities, without being excluded from the established church; but when Elizabeth felt herself secure, they were obliged to conform, or suffered imprisonment, fines, and other punishments. Their original difficulty was repugnance to the surplice, and to some few forms of worship; but these gradually extended to an opposition to the order of bishops; to the temporal dignities of the church; to the various titles of the hierarchy; to the jurisdiction of the spiritual courts; to the promiscuous access of all persons to the communion table; to the liturgy; to the observance of holydays; to cathedral

worship; to the use of organs; to the presentation of livings by patrons; and finally, to some of the doctrines of the established church. The expulsion of the Puritans from the Episcopal church took place in 1566; and from that time, to the death of Elizabeth, they enjoyed no peace, although they sought redress in the most respectful manner, and raised no opposition to the royal authority. This grievous error entailed a heavy retribution. Persecution and penal laws fanned a fanatical spirit, which, in the reign of Charles, burst out into a destructive flame, and spread devastation and ruin through all parts of the kingdom. Ch. 6. 1583 to 1587

Commercial enterprise.

If, however, the queen and her ministers did not understand the principles of religious toleration, they certainly pursued an enlightened policy in regard to all financial and political subjects. The commercial importance of England received a new impulse. The voyages of Frobisher and Drake aroused a spirit of adventure, and serious attempts were made to colonize the New World. In 1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert secured a liberal patent from Government, and sailed with a considerable body of adventurers, but he took a too northerly direction, and was shipwrecked on the coast of Cape Breton.

Sir Walter Raleigh.

The spirit of the times, however, soon called out a greater genius, Sir Walter Raleigh, who, obtaining a similar patent to Gilbert, despatched in 1584 two small vessels, under the command of Amidas and Barlow, and, soon after, a fleet of seven ships, commanded by Sir Richard Grenville. The expedition proved unfortunate, and the only result of it was the introduction of tobacco into Europe.

Another expedition was sent in 1587, under Captain White, which also failed; but the spirit of colonization was aroused, and did not abate until various sections of North America were peopled with English settlers, who introduced the language, arts, religion, and institutions of the mother country, and laid the foundation for a great empire.

Unfortunately, with these enterprises also commenced the

Ch. 6 African slave trade—a traffic which has been productive of more human misery, and led to more social evils, than can be traced to any other event in the history of modern times, and which, as the father of slavery, may yet divide that empire which has inherited and endorsed it.

A. D. 1589 to 1603.

Social advance.

During this reign the houses of the people became more comfortable; chimneys began to be generally used; pewter dishes took the place of wooden trenchers; wheat was substituted for rye and barley; linen and woollen cloth were manufactured; and salads, cabbages, gooseberries, apricots, pippins, currants, cherries, plums, carnations, and the damask rose, were cultivated, some of them for the first time.

Revival of literature.

But its great glory was the revival of literature and science. Raleigh, "the soldier, the sailor, the scholar, the philosopher, the poet, the orator, the historian," then adorned the court; and the prince of poets, the immortal Shakspeare, wrote those plays, which, for moral wisdom and knowledge of the human soul, have never been equalled. The prince of philosophers too, the great miner and sapper of the false systems of the Middle Ages, Francis Bacon, now commenced his career, and Spenser dedicated to Elizabeth his "Faëry Queen," one of the most truly poetical compositions that genius ever produced. The age gave birth also to great divines; but these did not occupy so prominent a place in the nation's eye as during the succeeding reigns, when theological discussions were revived with a zeal unparalleled since the first outbreak of the Reformation.

REFERENCES.—In addition to the ordinary histories of England, Robertson's "History of Scotland;" Miss Strickland's "Life of Mary Queen of Scots;" M'Crie's "Life of Knox;" Nare's "Life of Burleigh;" the "Life of Sir Walter Raleigh;" Neale's "History of the Puritans;" Macaulay's "Essays;" and Bancroft's "History of Colonization," may be consulted: Sir Walter Scott's "Kenilworth" may also be profitably read.

CHAPTER VII.

PHILIP II. AND THE AUSTRIAN PRINCES OF SPAIN.

Ch. 7. A. D. 1556 to 1566.

SPAIN cannot be said to have been a powerful State until the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella (1479 to 1516), when the crowns of Castile and Arragon were united, and the discoveries of Columbus added a new world to their extensive territories. During the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, the power of the crown was very great, but not so absolute as during the sway of the Austrian princes. For the nobles were then animated by a bold and free spirit, and the clergy dared to resist the encroachments of royalty, and even the usurpations of Rome. Charles V. succeeded in suppressing this spirit, and so laid the foundation for the power of his son, Philip II.

Philip II.

With Philip (1556) commenced the grandeur of the Spanish monarchy. By him, also, were sown the seeds of its subsequent decay. Under him the Inquisition was disgraced by ten thousand enormities; Holland was overrun by the Duke of Alva; and the wealth of America was secured and enjoyed. It was he who built the gorgeous palaces of Spain, and he also it was, who, as we have already seen, attempted the conquest of England.

Religious persecution.

Among the first acts of the reign of Philip was the effort to extinguish Protestantism in the Netherlands, then an assemblage of seigniories, under various titles, subject to his authority. The opinions of Luther and Calvin had made great progress in this country, and Philip, in order to repress them, in 1566 established the Inquisition. The people protested, and these protests were considered as rebellious.

Ch. 7. A. D. 1568 to 1584.

At the head of the nobility was William, Prince of Orange, on whom Philip had conferred the government of Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Utrecht, then provinces of the Netherlands. He was a haughty but resolute man, who had adopted the opinions of Calvin, and had, therefore, lost the confidence of Philip. In the prospect of ruin, if not of death, he resolved to deliver his country from the yoke of a merciless and bigoted master. Having reduced the most important garrisons of Holland and Zealand, he openly threw off his allegiance to Spain, and hostilities commenced, when Alva, the general of Philip, took the old city of Haerlem, and put fifteen hundred to the sword, among whom were all the magistrates, and all the Protestant clergy.

The Prince of Orange.

Soon after this (1576), the seven United Provinces formed themselves into a confederation, and chose the Prince of Orange to be the general of their armies, admiral of their fleets, and chief magistrate, by the title of *Stadtholder*. His assassination followed in the year 1584, and Maurice, his son, received his title, dignities, and power. The military talents of Maurice, as the antagonist of the Duke of Parma, lieutenant to Philip in the Netherlands, soon secured him a high place in the estimation of warriors. To protect this prince, and the infant republic of Holland, Queen Elizabeth sent four thousand men under the Earl of Leicester, her favorite; and, with this assistance, the Hollanders maintained their ground against the most powerful monarch in Europe.

Holland aided by England.

After the loss of the Netherlands, the next great event of his reign was the acquisition of Portugal, to which he laid claim on the death of Don Henry, in 1580. There were several other claimants; but Philip, with an army of twenty thousand, was stronger than any of the others. He gained a decisive victory over Don Antonio, uncle to the last monarch, and was crowned at Lisbon without opposition.

The revolt of the Moriscoes, which commenced in 1568, occupies a prominent place in the annals of this reign. They were Christianized Moors, but, at heart, Mohammedans. A

decree had been published that their children should frequent Christian churches; that the Arabic should no longer be used in writing; that both men and women should wear the Spanish costume; that they should no longer receive Mohammedan names, or marry without permission. The Moriscoes contended that a particular dress did not involve religious opinions; that their women used the veil according to their notions of modesty; and that the use of their own language was no sin. These expostulations were, however, without effect. Nothing could move the bigoted king. So revolt followed oppression, and great excesses were committed by both parties.

Revolt of the Moriscoes.

Civil war is ever the same, and presents nearly the same undeviating picture of misery and crime. But in this war there was something fiendish. A clergyman was roasted over a brazier, and the women, wearied with his protracted death, despatched him with their needles and knives. The rebels ridiculed the sacrifice of the mass by slaughtering a pig on the high altar of a church. These insults were fearfully retaliated. Thousands of defenceless women and children were murdered in violation of the most solemn treaties. The whole Moorish population was finally exterminated, and Granada, with its beautiful mountains and fertile valleys, became a desert. No less than six hundred thousand were driven to Africa—an act of great impolicy, since the Moriscoes were the most ingenious and industrious part of the population. Their exile greatly contributed to undermine the national prosperity.

Their expulsion from Spain.

The destruction of the Spanish Armada, in the attempted invasion of England, and the losses which the Spaniards suffered from Sir Francis Drake and Admiral Hawkins, have already been mentioned.

The decline of the Spanish monarchy dates from the death of this monarch, which took place in his magnificent palace of the Escurial, in 1598. Under his son Philip III. it became marked, and future ruin could then be predicted.

The principal cause of the decline of prosperity was the great increase of the clergy, and the extent of their wealth.

Ch. 7. A. D. 1598 to 1621.

In the Spanish dominions, which included Spain, Naples, Milan, Parma, Sicily, Sardinia, the Netherlands, Portugal, and the Indies, there were fifty-four archbishops, six hundred and eighty-four bishops, seven thousand hospitals, one hundred thousand abbeys and nunneries, six hundred thousand monks, and three hundred and ten thousand secular priests—a priest to every ten families. Almost every village had a monastery. The diocese of Seville had fourteen thousand priests—nearly the present number of all the clergy of the Establishment in England. The cathedral of Seville alone gave support and occupation to one hundred priests.

Numerous clergy.

This numerous clergy gradually usurped the power and dignities of the State. They also encouraged that frightful Inquisition, the very name of which conjures up the most horrid images of death and torture. The inquisitors had power to apprehend people even suspected of heresy, and, on the testimony of two witnesses, could condemn them to torture, imprisonment, and death. Resistance was vain; complaint was ruin. Arrests took place suddenly and secretly. Nor had the prisoner a knowledge of his accusers, or of the crimes of which he was accused. Even nobles were not exempted from the supervision of this court, which was established in every village and town in Portugal and Spain, and which, in the single city of Toledo, condemned, in one year, seventeen thousand people.

The Inquisition, and its cruelties.

In addition to the evils of this spiritual despotism, came others attendant on wealth. The sudden increase of gold and silver led to luxury, idleness, and degeneracy. Money being abundant, the people neglected the cultivation of those things which money could procure. Then followed a great rise in the prices of all kind of provision and clothing. Houses, lands, and manufactures also increased in value. Habits of industry were lost, the culture of the soil was neglected, and the gold and silver of the Spaniards were exchanged for the productive industry of other nations. The Dutch and the English, whose manufactures and commerce were in a healthy

Effects of wealth.

state, became enriched at their expense. With the loss of substantial wealth—that is, of industry and economy, the Spaniards became cold and proud, and followed frivolous pleasures and amusements. Plays, pantomimes, and bull fights now amused a lazy and pleasure-seeking nation, while the profligacy of the court had scarcely a parallel in Europe. Ch. 7. A. D. 1622 to 1699.

The country became exhausted by war. The finances were deranged, and province after province rebelled. Everywhere followed military reverses, and a decrease of population. Taxes, in the meanwhile, increased, and a burdened people lamented in vain their misfortune and decline.

The reign of Philip IV. (1621 to 1665) was the most disastrous in the annals of the country. The Catalan insurrection, the loss of Jamaica, the Low Countries, and Portugal, were the results of his misrule and imbecility. So rapidly indeed did Spain degenerate, that, upon the close of the Austrian dynasty, with all the natural advantages of the country, the best harbors and sea coast in Europe, the richest soil, and the finest climate, the people were the poorest, the most ignorant, and the most helpless in Europe. Decay of Spain.

The death of Charles II., in 1699, left Spain without a king, and the vacant throne became the prize of the monarch who could raise and send across the Pyrenees the largest army. It fell into the hands of Louis XIV., and the Bourbon princes have ever since in vain attempted the restoration of the broken monarchy to its former glory.

For the history of Spain during the Austrian Princes, see Lardner's "Encyclopædia;" Watson's "Life of Philip II.;" Schiller's "Revolt of the Netherlands;" Russell's "Modern Europe;" Prescott's "Conquest of Mexico and Peru;" and Coxe's "Memoirs."

CHAPTER VIII.

THE COUNTER-REFORMATION AND THE JESUITS.

Ch. 8. A. D. 1540 to 1600.

During the period we have just been considering, the most marked peculiarity of the times was the struggle between Protestantism and Romanism. It is true that objects of personal ambition also occupied the minds of princes, and many great events occurred, which were not connected with struggles for religious liberty and light. But the great feature of the age was unquestionably a spirit of innovation, which nothing could suppress, and which was directed, in the main, to matters of religion. The conflict was not between Church and State, but between two great parties in each. "No man asked whether another belonged to the same country as himself, but whether he belonged to the same sect."

The period of conflict.

Luther, Calvin, Zwingle, Knox, and Cranmer, made war upon the Roman Catholic Church, as the great supporter and defender of the ideas of the middle ages. They renounced her authority. She summoned her friends and vassals, rallied all her forces, and, with desperate energy, resolved to put them down. The struggles of the Protestants in England, Germany, France, and the Netherlands, alike manifested the same spirit, were produced by the same causes, and brought forth the same results.

The hostile movements of Rome, for a while, were carried on by armies, massacres, assassinations, and inquisitions. The Duke of Alva's cruelties in the Netherlands, St. Bartholomew's massacre in France, inquisitorial tortures in Spain, and Smithfield burnings in England, illustrate this assertion. But more subtle and artful agents were required, and they were found.

Men of simple lives, of undoubted piety, of earnest zeal, and singular disinterestedness arose, and did what the sword and the stake could not do,—revived Catholicism, and caused a reaction in its favor. These men were the Jesuits, the most faithful, intrepid, and successful soldiers that ever enlisted under the banners of Rome. Ch. 8. A. D. 1540 to 1600.

The rise and fortunes of this order form one of the most important and interesting chapters in the history of the human race. Their victories, and the spirit which achieved them, are well worth our notice. In considering them, however, it must be borne in mind, that the Jesuits have exhibited traits so dissimilar and contradictory, that it is difficult to form a just judgment respecting them. While they were achieving their victories, they appeared in a totally different light from that which distinguished them when they reposed on their laurels. Hence the *earlier* and the *later* Jesuits appear in some aspects to have little in common, although the principles of their system were unchanged, and their organization was always the same. Our present notice will be confined to the Jesuits when they were worthy of respect, and, in some things, even of admiration. Their courage, fidelity, zeal, learning, and intrepidity for half a century, have not been exaggerated. The early Jesuits

The founder of the order was Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish gentleman of noble birth, born in 1491, who first appeared as a soldier at the siege of Pampeluna, where he was wounded, about the time that Luther was writing his theses, and denouncing indulgences. He amused himself, on his sick bed, by reading the lives of the saints. His enthusiastic mind was deeply affected, and he resolved to pass from worldly to spiritual knighthood. He became a saint, after the notions of that age; he fasted, wore sackcloth, lived on roots and herbs, practised austerities, retired to lonely places, and spent his time in contemplation and prayer. The people were attracted by his sanctity, and followed him in crowds. His heart burned to convert heretics; and, to prepare himself for his mission, he went to the universities, and devoted himself to study. There The founder of the order.

Ch. 8. he made some distinguished converts, all of whom afterwards became famous. In his narrow cell at Paris, in the year 1534, he induced Francis Xavier, Faber, Laynez, Bobadilla, and Rodriguez to embrace his views, and to form themselves into an association, for the conversion of the world. On the summit of Montmartre, these six young men, on one starlit night, took the usual monastic vows of *poverty*, *chastity*, and *obedience*, and solemnly devoted themselves to their new mission.

A. D. 1534 to 1540.

Institution of the Jesuits.

In 1537 they went to Rome to induce the Pope to constitute them a missionary order. But they were ridiculed as fanatics. For centuries there had been great opposition in Rome against the institution of new orders. Even St. Dominic and St. Francis had great difficulty in getting theirs instituted. But Loyola and his companions made extraordinary offers. They professed their willingness to go wherever the Pope should send them, among Turks, heathens, or heretics, instantly, without condition or reward, and at last they obtained their prayer. This was in 1540.

How could the Pope refuse them? His empire was in danger; Luther was in the midst of his victories; a new power was shaking to its centre the pontifical throne; all the old orders had become degenerate and inefficient. The venerable Benedictines were revelling in the wealth of their splendid abbeys, while the Dominicans and Franciscans had become little better than itinerant pedlars of relics and indulgences, forgetful of those stern duties and virtues which originally characterized them. Everywhere the monks were inexhaustible subjects of sarcasm. Erasmus laughed at them, and Luther mocked them. They were sensual, lazy, ignorant, and corrupt. The Pope did not want such soldiers. But the followers of Loyola were full of ardor, talent, and zeal; willing to do anything for a sinking cause; *able* to do anything, so far as human will can avail. And they did not disappoint him. They increased with marvellous rapidity. The zealous, devout, and energetic, throughout all ranks in the

Reasons for it.

Catholic Church, joined them. They spread into all lands. They became the confessors of kings, the teachers of youth, the most popular of preachers, the most successful of missionaries. In sixteen years after the scene of Montmartre, Loyola had established his society in the affections and confidence of Catholic Europe, against the voice of universities, the fears of monarchs, and the jealousy of the other monastic orders. In sixteen years, from the condition of a ridiculed fanatic, he became one of the most powerful dignitaries of the church, influencing the councils of the Vatican, moving the minds of kings, controlling a numerous fraternity, and making his power felt, even in the courts of Japan and China.

Their rapid extension.

Before he died (1556), his spiritual sons had planted their missionary stations amid Peruvian mines, among the marts of the African slave trade, in the islands of the Indian Ocean, and in the cities of Japan and China. Nay, his followers had secured the most important chairs in the universities of Europe, had made themselves confessors to the most powerful monarchs, teachers in the best schools of Christendom, and preachers in its principal pulpits. More than all this, the order had become an organization, instinct with life, endued with energy and will, and forming a body which could outwatch Argus with his hundred eyes, and outwork Briareus with his hundred arms. It had forty thousand eyes open upon every cabinet and private family in Europe, and forty thousand arms extended over the necks of both sovereigns and people. It had become a mighty power in the world, inseparably connected with the education and the religion of the age; it was the prime mover of all political affairs, the grand prop of absolute monarchies, the last hope of the papal hierarchy.

And great power.

The sudden growth and enormous resources of the "Society of Jesus" impress us with feelings of amazement and awe. We almost attribute them to the agency of mysterious powers, and are prone to forget the operations of natural causes. The history of society shows that no body of men ever obtained a wide-spread ascendency, except by the exercise of remarkable

Ch. 8. qualities of mind and heart. And this is the reason why the Jesuits prospered. When Catholic Europe saw young men, born to fortune and honors, voluntarily surrendering their rank and goods; devoting themselves to religious duties; spending their days in hospitals and schools; wandering, as missionaries, into the most unknown and dangerous parts of the world; exciting the young to study; making great attainments in all departments of literature and science; and shedding light, wherever they went, by their genius and disinterestedness, it was natural that they should be welcomed as preachers, teachers, and confessors. That they were characterized, during the first fifty years, by such excellencies, has never been denied. The Jesuit missionary has called forth the praises of Baxter, and the panegyric of Leibnitz.

A. D. 1540 to 1600.

Their sacrifices.

Francis Xavier, one of the first converts of Loyola, a Spaniard of rank, traversed a tract of more than twice the circumference of the globe, preaching, disputing, and baptizing, until seventy thousand converts attested the fruits of his mission. At a later period they penetrated into Canada, to the sources of the Mississippi, and into the prairies of Illinois. "My companion," said the fearless Marquette, "is an envoy of France, to discover new countries; I am an ambassador of God, to enlighten them with the gospel." But of all the missions of the Jesuits, those in Paraguay were the most successful. They there gathered together, in *reductions*, or villages, three hundred thousand Indians, bound together by a common interest, controlled by a paternal authority, taught useful arts, and trained to enjoy the blessings of civilization.

And missionary efforts.

In that age the Jesuit excelled in any work to which he devoted his attention. He was not only an intrepid missionary, but a most successful teacher. Into the work of education he entered heart and soul. He taught gratuitously, without harshness, and with a view to gain the heart. He entered into the feelings of his pupils, and taught them to subdue their tempers, and to avoid quarrels and oaths. He excited them to enthusiasm, perceived their merits, and rewarded the

successful with presents and favors. Hence the schools of the Jesuits soon became the best in Europe, and were highly praised even by Protestants. Can we wonder that under such an agency Catholicism should revive? Ch. 8. A. D. 1540 to 1600.

Again, their constitution was wonderful, and admirably adapted to the ends they had in view. Their vows were indeed substantially the same as those of other monks, but there was among them a more practical spirit of obedience. All the members of the society were controlled by a single will—all were passive instruments in the hands of the general of the order. He appointed, dismissed, dispensed, and punished at his pleasure. His power was irresponsible, and for life. From his will there was no appeal. The Jesuit was bound to obey even his own servant, if required by a superior. Obedience was the soul of the institution; it was absolute, unconditional, and unreserved—the entire abnegation of self. "*Ad majorem Dei gloriam*," was the motto emblazoned on their standards, and written on their hearts; but this glory of God was synonymous with the ascendency of their association. Their constitution.

This unconditional obedience to a single will, which is the genius of Jesuitism, while it signally advanced the interests of the body, and of the Pope, to whom they were devoted, naturally led to the most resistless spiritual despotism ever exercised by man. The Jesuit, especially when obscure and humble, was bound hand and foot by the orders of his superiors; and they alone were responsible for his actions. Vows of obedience.

We can easily see how the extraordinary virtues and attainments of the early Jesuits, and the wonderful mechanism of their system, would promote the growth of the order and the interests of Rome, before suspicion of evil would be aroused. It was long after their piety had passed to fraud, their simplicity to cunning, their poverty to wealth, their humility to pride, and their indifference to the world to cabals, intrigues, and crimes, before the change was felt. Moreover, it was above a century before the fruits of the system were fully reaped. It was then seen that their system of education, though spe- Spiritual despotism.

Ch. 8. A. D. 1600 to 1700.

cious, and in many respects excellent, was calculated to narrow the mind, while it filled it with knowledge; that the young men in their colleges were taught blindly to follow a rigid, mechanical code; that truths of great importance were concealed or glossed over; that exploded errors were revived; and that the entire system was one of repression, guarding the avenues of thought, but not opening them, and fatal to all independence of thought or feeling.

System of education.

Again, as preachers, though popular and eloquent, they devoted their talents to make men Catholics rather than Christians. As missionaries, they were content with a mere nominal conversion; and even permitted their converts to retain many of their ancient superstitions and prejudices. They usurped the authority of native rulers. They greatly enriched themselves, in consequence of the credulity of the natives, whom they flattered; and in many respects they wielded a power as arbitrary as it was unlawful. To these causes may be traced their ultimate expulsion from the countries they had subdued.

Their intrigues.

As confessors, they were peculiarly indulgent to those who sought absolution, provided their submission was complete. The offender was told that sin consisted in wilfulness, and wilfulness in the perfect knowledge of the nature of sin, according to which doctrine blindness and passion were sufficient exculpations. They invented the doctrine of mental reservation, on which Pascal was so severe. Perjury was allowable, if the perjured were inwardly determined not to swear. A man might fight a duel, if in danger of being stigmatized as a coward; he might betray his friend, if he could thus benefit his party. Finally, they invented a system of casuistry which confused all established ideas of moral obligation. They tolerated, and some of them justified, crime, if the same could be made subservient to the interests of the church. Their principle, in short, too often was to do evil that good might come. In a future chapter we shall glance at the decline and fall of this celebrated institution—the best adapted

Jesuit casuistry.

to its proposed ends of any system ever devised by the craft and wisdom of man. Ch. 8.

A. D. 1540 to 1600.

The great patrons of the Jesuits—the Popes of the latter half of the sixteenth century,—now demand some notice. The Catholic Church, during this time, was remarkable for the reformation it attempted within its own body; and for the zeal, ability, and virtue which marked the character of many of the Popes themselves. Had it not been for this counter reformation, Protestantism would have obtained a great ascendency in Europe.

The Popes.

At the close of the sixteenth century the Popes possessed a well situated, rich, and beautiful province. All writers celebrated its fertility. Scarcely a foot of land remained uncultivated. Corn was exported, and the ports were filled with ships. The Popes were generally virtuous, and munificent patrons of genius. Gregory XIII. kept a list of men in every country who were likely to acquit themselves as bishops, and exhibited the greatest caution in appointing them. Sixtus V., whose father was an humble gardener, encouraged agriculture and manufactures, husbanded the resources of the State, and filled Rome with statues. He raised the obelisk in front of St. Peter's, and completed the dome of the cathedral. Clement VIII. celebrated the mass himself, and scrupulously devoted himself to religious duties. He was careless of pleasure; and admitted every day twelve poor persons to dine with him. Gregory XIV. had all the severity of an ancient monk.

Their moderation.

The only religious peculiarity of the Popes, at the latter end of the sixteenth century, which must unhesitatingly be condemned, was their religious intolerance. But they saw that their empire would pass away, unless they used vigorous and desperate measures to retain it. During this period the great victories of the Jesuits, the establishment of their colleges, and the splendid endowments of their churches, took place. In the beginning of the next century Gregory XV. built, at his own cost, the celebrated church of St. Ignatius,

Ch. 8. at Rome; and instituted the Propaganda, a missionary institution, under the control of the Jesuits.

A. D. 1600 to 1700.

The Popes, whether good or bad, did not, however, relinquish their nepotism; in consequence of which great families constantly arose, and supplanted the old aristocracy. They vied with each other in titles and pomp, in ceremony and pride. The ladies of the Savelli family never quitted their palace walls, except in closely veiled carriages. The Visconti decorated their walls with the portraits of the Popes of their line. The Gaetana dwelt with pride on the memory of Boniface VIII. The Colonna and Orsini boasted that for centuries no peace had been concluded in Christendom, in which they had not been expressly included. But these old families had become gradually impoverished; and yielded, in wealth and power, though not in pride and dignity, to the Cesarini, Borghesi, Aldobrandini, Ludovisi, Giustiniani, Chigi, and the Barberini. All these families, from which Popes had sprung, had splendid palaces, villas, pictures, libraries, and statues; and they contributed to make Rome the centre of attraction throughout Europe. It was still the moral and social centre of Christendom.

Great Roman families.

REFERENCES.—Ranke's "History of the Popes;" Father Bonheur's "Life of Ignatius Loyola;" "A Life of Xavier," by the same author; Charlevoix's "History of Paraguay;" "Secreta Monita;" "Histoire des Jesuites;" "Spiritual Exercises." The works on the Jesuits are very numerous; that of Ranke is the most impartial.

CHAPTER IX.

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Ch. 9.

A. D. 1618 to 1648.

THE contests which arose out of religious discussion did not close with the sixteenth century. They were, on the contrary, continued with still greater acrimony. Protestantism had been suppressed in France, but not in Germany. In England the struggle was continued, not between Catholics and Protestants, but between different parties among the Protestants themselves. In Germany a long and devastating war of thirty years had to be carried on before religious liberty could be guaranteed.

The Thirty Years' War.

This struggle is the most prominent event of the seventeenth century prior to the English Revolution; and was attended with the most important religious and political consequences. The event itself was one of the chief political consequences of the Reformation. Indeed, all the events of this period either originated in, or became mixed up with, questions of religion.

From the very dawn of the Reformation, the house of Austria devoted against it the whole of its immense political power. Charles V. resolved to suppress Protestantism; and would have perhaps succeeded, had it not been for the various wars which distracted his attention, and for the decided stand which the Protestant princes of Germany took respecting Luther and his doctrines.

The year of the resignation of Charles V. found Germany divided into two great political and religious parties, each recognizing the independence of the other. The Protestants were no longer looked upon as rebels, but as men who had a

Ch. 9. right to worship God as they pleased. Still, in reality, all that the Lutherans had gained was toleration, not equality. The concessions of the Catholics were made to necessity, not to justice. Hence the treaty of Augsburg (1555), on which this arrangement was based, proved only a truce, not a lasting peace. The boundaries of both parties were marked out by the sword, and by the sword only were they to be preserved.

A. D. 1555 to 1612.

Divisions among the Protestants

For a while, however, peace was preserved, and might have continued longer, had it not been for the dissensions of Protestants among themselves. The Lutherans would not include the Calvinists in their communion; and the Calvinists would not accede to the demands of the Lutheran Church. During these dissensions, the Jesuits sowed tares; and the Protestants lost all chance of establishing themselves on an equality with the Catholics.

Notwithstanding, however, all the bitterness and jealousy which existed between sects and parties, the peace of Germany, in a political sense, was preserved during the reign of Ferdinand, the founder of the German branch of the house of Austria, who had succeeded his brother, Charles V. On his death, in 1564, his son Maximilian II. was chosen Emperor; and until his death, in 1576, Germany enjoyed tranquillity. His successor was his son Rodolph, a weak prince, and incapable of uniting the various territories which were hereditary in his family, — Austria, Hungary, Transylvania, Bohemia, Moravia, and Styria. Each of these provinces, in turn, revolted, until Rodolph was left with little more than the empty title of Emperor. They would only acknowledge the sway of his brother Matthias, who had delivered them from the Turks, and had granted the Protestants liberty of conscience. The Emperor was weak enough to confirm his brother in his usurpation. In 1612, he died; and Matthias mounted the imperial throne. It was during the reign of this prince that the Thirty Years' War commenced.

Maximilian II. and Rodolph

Matthias.

In proportion as the Reformed religion gained ground in

Ch. 9.

A. D. 1612 to 1620.

Hungary and Bohemia—two provinces very difficult to rule—the Protestant princes of the empire became desirous of securing and extending their privileges. Their demands were refused, and they entered into a new confederacy, called the *Evangelical Union*. This association, formed on the 4th of May, 1608, was opposed by another, called the *Catholic League*. The former was supported by Holland, England, and Henry IV. of France: the latter by the Catholic powers. The humiliation of Austria was the great object of Henry in supporting the Protestant princes of Germany; and for this end he assembled an army of forty thousand men, which he designed to head himself. But just as his preparations were completed, he was assassinated; and his death, added to dissensions in the Austrian family, prevented the war breaking out with the fury which afterwards characterized it.

Evangelical Union and Catholic League.

The Emperor Matthias died in 1619, and was succeeded by his cousin Ferdinand, Duke of Styria, who was an inveterate enemy to the Protestant cause. His first care was to suppress an insurrection of the Protestants, which, just before his accession, had broken out in Bohemia, under the celebrated Count Mansfeldt. The Bohemians renounced allegiance to Ferdinand II., and chose Frederic V., Elector Palatine, for their King. Frederic unwisely accepted the crown, which confirmed the quarrel between Ferdinand and the Bohemians. Frederic was seconded by all the Protestant princes, except the Elector of Saxony; by two thousand four hundred English volunteers; and by eight thousand troops from the United Provinces. But Ferdinand, assisted by the King of Spain and all the Catholic princes, was more than a match for Frederic, who wasted his time and strength in vain displays of sovereignty.

Revolt in Bohemia.

Maximilian, Duke of Bavaria, commanded the forces of the Catholics, who, with twenty-five thousand troops from the Low Countries, invaded Bohemia. The Bohemian forces, amounting to about thirty thousand, intrenched themselves near Prague, where they were attacked (1620) and routed,

Ch. 9. with immense slaughter. The battle of Prague decided the fate of Bohemia, put Ferdinand in possession of all his dominions, and invested him with an authority equal to that which any of his predecessors had enjoyed. All his wishes were gratified; and, had he been wise, he might have maintained his ascendency in Germany. But he was blinded by his success; and so, from a rebellion in Bohemia, the war extended through Germany, and afterwards throughout Europe.

A. D. 1620 to 1623.

Maximilian of Bavaria.

The Emperor had regained his dominions by the victorious arms of Maximilian, Duke of Bavaria. To compensate this service without detriment to himself, he resolved to bestow upon him the dominions of the Count Palatine of the Rhine, who had injudiciously accepted the crown of Bohemia. Frederic must be totally ruined. He was, therefore, put under the ban of the empire, and his territories were devastated by the Spanish General Spinola, with an army of twenty-five thousand men.

Apparently there was no hope for Frederic, or the Protestant cause. The only Protestant princes capable of arresting the Austrian encroachments were the Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg. But the former, John George, preferred the aggrandizement of his house to the emancipation of his country, and tamely witnessed the victories of the Emperor, without raising an arm for the relief of the Protestants, of whom he was the acknowledged head. George William of Brandenburg was still more shamefully fettered by the fear of Austria; and he, too, cautiously avoided committing himself to either party.

Count Mansfeldt.

But while these two great princes ingloriously abandoned Frederic to his fate, a single soldier of fortune, whose only treasure was his sword, Ernest Count Mansfeldt, dared, in the Bohemian town of Pilsen, to defy the whole power of Austria. Undismayed by the reverses of the Elector Palatine, he succeeded in enlisting an army of twenty thousand men. With such an army, the cause of Frederic was not irretrievably lost. New prospects began to open, and his misfortunes raised up unexpected friends. James of England opened his

treasures, and Christian of Denmark offered his powerful support. Mansfeldt was also joined by the Margrave of Baden. The courage of the Count Palatine revived; and he labored assiduously to arouse his Protestant brethren. Meanwhile, the generals of the Emperor were on the alert; and the rising hopes of Frederic were dissipated by the victories of Tilly. The Count Palatine was again driven from his hereditary dominions, and sought refuge in Holland.

But though the Emperor was successful, his finances were exhausted, and he was dependent on Bavaria. Under these circumstances nothing was more welcome than the proposal of Wallenstein, an experienced officer, and the richest nobleman in Bohemia, to raise, clothe, and maintain an army for the Emperor, if he were allowed to augment it to fifty thousand men. His project was ridiculed as visionary; but the offer was not to be rejected. In a few months he had collected an army of thirty thousand. His reputation, the prospect of promotion, and the hope of plunder, attracted adventurers from all parts of Germany. Knowing that so large a body could not be held together without great resources, and having none of his own, he marched his troops into the most fertile territories, which had not yet suffered from the war, where they subsisted by contributions and plunder, speedily becoming as obnoxious to their friends as they were to their enemies.

Wallenstein.

Nothing shows the weakness of the Imperial power, amid all its apparent strength, than this grant to Wallenstein: for with all his heroism and success, he cannot be viewed in any other light than as a licensed robber. He was virtually at the head of a troop of banditti, who fought for the sake of plunder, and who were prepared to join any side which might present the greatest hope of gain. The genius of Schiller, both in his dramas and histories, has immortalized the name of this unprincipled hero, and has excited a strange interest in his person, his family, and his fortunes. He is represented as born to command. His acute eye, we are told, distin-

His lawless troops.

Ch. 9. guished at a glance, from among the multitude, such as were competent; and he assigned to each his proper place. His very appearance excited awe and reverence; his figure was proud, lofty, and warlike, while his bright piercing eye expressed profundity of thought, combined with gravity and mystery. His favorite study was that of the stars. He maintained sixty pages; his ante-chamber was defended by fifty life guards; and his table never consisted of less than one hundred covers. Six barons and as many knights were in constant attendance upon his person. He never smiled, and the coldness of his temperament was proof against sensual seductions. Ever occupied with grand schemes, he despised those amusements in which so many waste their lives. Terror was the talisman with which he worked; and no general of ancient or modern times could boast of being obeyed with equal alacrity.

A. D. 1625 to 1630.

State of Wallenstein.

His success. Such was the enterprising nobleman to whom the Emperor Ferdinand committed so great authority. And the success of Wallenstein apparently justified the course of the Emperor. Great in his extortions, and munificent in his rewards, crowds flocked to his standard. It is said that, in seven years, Wallenstein exacted not less than sixty millions of dollars from one half of Germany; an incredible sum, when it is recollected that the annual expenditure of the government of England at this time was less than two millions. His armies flourished, while the States through which they passed were ruined. It was his object to humble all the princes of the empire, and to make himself necessary to the Emperor, by whom he had already been created Duke of Friedland, and Generalissimo of the Imperial armies. Uninterrupted success seemed to promise the realization of his vast ambition. Germany lay bleeding at his feet, helpless and indignant.

His enemies But the greatness and the insolence of Wallenstein raised up enemies against him in all parts of the empire. Fear and jealousy increased opposition, even in the ranks of the Catholics. His dismissal was demanded by the whole college

of electors, and even by Spain. Maximilian, Duke of Bavaria, felt himself eclipsed by the successful general; and was at the head of the cabals against him.

The Emperor felt, at this crisis, as Ganganelli did when compelled to disband the Jesuits, that he was parting with the man to whom he owed all his supremacy. But all Germany was clamorous; and the disgrace of Wallenstein was ordained.

The question now was, would the ambitious chieftain, at the head of one hundred thousand devoted soldiers, regard the commands of the Emperor? This was soon answered. He did. He made up his mind to obey; looking to the future for revenge, and feeling that he could afford to wait for it. He was a firm believer in astrology; and he had read in the stars that glorious prospects still awaited him. Wallenstein retired to his estates in Bohemia; but maintained the pomp and splendor of a Prince of the Empire.

Retires to his estates.

Scarcely had he retired from the command of the army, before his dismissal was seen to be an error. Providence had raised up a friend to Germany in its distress, in the person of Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden. It was not for personal aggrandizement that he lent his powerful arm to the Protestant princes, who, thus far, had vainly struggled against Maximilian, Tilly, and Wallenstein. Zeal for Protestantism, added to strong provocations, induced him to land in Germany with fifteen thousand men—a small body to oppose the victorious troops of the Emperor, but they were brave and highly disciplined, and devoted to their royal master. He himself was indisputably the greatest general of the age, and had the full confidence of the Protestant princes, who were ready to rally the moment he obtained any signal advantage. Henceforth Gustavus Adolphus was the hero of the war. He was more than a hero; he was a Christian, careful of the morals of his soldiers, and devoted to the interests of spiritual religion. He was frugal, yet generous; serene in the greatest danger; and magnanimous beyond all precedent

Gustavus Adolphus.

Ch. 9. in the history of kings. On the 20th of May, 1630, taking his daughter Christiana in his arms, then only four years of age, he presented her to the States as their future sovereign, and made his farewell address. "Not lightly, not wantonly," said he, "am I about to involve myself and you in this new and dangerous war. God is my witness that I do not fight to gratify my own ambition; but the Emperor has wronged me, has supported my enemies, persecuted my friends, trampled my religion in the dust, and even stretched forth his revengeful arm against my crown. The oppressed States of Germany call loudly for aid, which, by God's help, we will give them."

A. D. 1630.

He had scarcely landed in Germany before his victorious career began. France concluded a treaty with him; and he advanced against Tilly, who now headed the Imperial armies.

Fall and sack of Magdeburg.

The tardiness of the Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg in rendering assistance caused the loss of Magdeburg, the most important fortress of the Protestants. It was taken by assault, even while Gustavus was advancing to its relief. No pen can paint, and no imagination can conceive, the horrors which were perpetrated by the Imperial soldiers in the sack of that unfortunate place. Neither childhood nor helpless age—neither youth, beauty, sex, nor rank—could disarm the fury of the conquerors. No situation or retreat was sacred. In a single church fifty-three women were beheaded. The Croats amused themselves with throwing children into the flames. Pappenheim's Walloons stabbed infants at the breast. The city was reduced to ashes; and thirty thousand of the inhabitants were slain.

Success of the King of Sweden.

But the loss of this important city was soon compensated by the battle of Leipsic, in 1631, which the King of Sweden gained over the Imperial forces; and in which the Elector of Saxony at last rendered valuable aid. The rout of Tilly, hitherto victorious, was complete; and he himself escaped only by chance. Saxony was freed; while Bohemia, Moravia, Austria, and Hungary were cleared of enemies. Ferdinand

was no longer secure in his capital: the freedom of Germany was secured. Gustavus was everywhere hailed as a deliverer; and astonishment at his genius was only equalled by admiration of his virtues. He rapidly regained all that the Protestants had lost; and the fruits of twelve years of war were snatched from the Emperor. Tilly was soon after killed; and all things indicated the complete triumph of the Protestants. Ch. 9 A. D. 1632.

It was now the turn of Ferdinand to tremble. The only person who could save him was dismissed and disgraced. Tilly was dead. Munich and Prague were in the hands of the Protestants; while the King of Sweden traversed Germany as a conqueror, lawgiver, and judge. No fortress was inaccessible; no river checked his victorious career. The Swedish standards were planted in Bavaria, Bohemia, the Palatinate, Saxony, and along the banks of the Rhine. Meanwhile the Turks were preparing to attack Hungary; and a dangerous insurrection threatened Vienna. None came to the assistance of the Emperor in the hour of peril. On all sides he was surrounded by hostile armies; while his own forces were dispirited and treacherous. Danger of Ferdinand.

From this hopeless state he was rescued by the man whom he had injured; but not until he had himself solicited his assistance. Wallenstein was in retirement, and secretly rejoiced in the victories of the Swedish King, knowing full well that the Emperor would soon be compelled to summon him again to command his armies. Now he could dictate his terms, humiliate his Sovereign, and at the same time obtain all the power his ambition craved. He declined entering the service unless he had the unlimited command of all the armies of Austria and Spain. No commission in the army was to be granted by the Emperor without his approval. He demanded, in short, sovereign authority; and with such humiliating terms the Emperor, in his necessities, was obliged to comply. Recall of Wallenstein.

No sooner did he raise his standard, than it was resorted to by the unprincipled, the rapacious, and the needy, from all

Ch. 9. parts of the empire. But Wallenstein now resolved to pursue his own selfish interests, and directed all his aims to independent sovereignty. When his forces were united with those of Maximilian, he found himself at the head of sixty thousand men. Then really commenced the severity of the contest, for Wallenstein was now stronger than Gustavus. Nevertheless, the heroic Swede offered to give his rival battle at Nuremburg, which was declined. He then attacked his camp, but was repulsed with loss. At last the two generals met on the plains of Lutzen, in Saxony. During the whole course of the war two such leaders had not been pitted against each other; nor had so much been staked on the chance of a battle. Victory declared for the troops of Gustavus; but the heroic leader himself was killed, in the fullness of his glory. This was on the 6th of November, 1632.

A.D. 1632.

Death of Gustavus.

According to Schiller, Gustavus died fortunately for his fame, and for the welfare of Germany; since it was supposed that he aspired to the Imperial throne. Had he attained that end, the liberties of the German nation would have been overturned, and civil war would have increased in horrors. We should be sorry to believe that he was actuated by any other motive than a generous desire to rescue the Protestants from annihilation, and a wish to preserve the balance of power. But Providence rescued him from a great temptation; and rewarded him with the affection of posterity.

Inaction of Wallenstein.

After the battle of Lutzen we almost lose sight of Wallenstein, who gained no victories commensurate with his reputation and abilities. He continued inactive in Bohemia, while all Europe was awaiting exploits which should efface the remembrance of his defeat. He exhausted the Imperial provinces by enormous contributions, and his whole conduct seems singular and treacherous. His enemies at the Imperial court now renewed their intrigues, and his conduct was reviewed with the most malicious criticism. But he possessed too great power to be openly assailed by the Emperor, and measures were concerted to remove him by treachery. Wallenstein obtained notice of the

designs against him, and resolved on an open revolt. But he was now too late; his own generals, on whom he counted, deserted him, so soon as the Emperor dared to deprive him of his command; and he was at length removed by assassination, just at the moment when he deemed himself secure. Ch. 9. A. D. 1634 to 1648.

The death of Wallenstein, in 1634, did not terminate the war. It raged fourteen years longer, with various success, and involved the other European powers. France was then governed by Cardinal Richelieu, who, notwithstanding his Catholicism, lent assistance to the Protestants, with a view of reducing the power of Austria. Indeed, the war had destroyed the sentiments which produced it, for political motives had become stronger than religious. Oxenstiern and Richelieu became the master spirits of the contest, and, in the recesses of their cabinets, regulated the campaigns of their generals. Battles were lost and won on both sides, and innumerable intrigues were plotted by interested statesmen. The war continues.

After all parties had exhausted their resources, and Germany had been deluged with the blood of Spaniards, Hollanders, Frenchmen, and Swedes, besides that of her own sons, the peace of Westphalia was concluded (1648),—the most important treaty in the history of Europe. All the princes and states of the empire were reëstablished in the lands, rights, and prerogatives which they enjoyed before the troubles in Bohemia, in 1618. The religious liberties of the Lutherans and Calvinists were guaranteed, and it was stipulated that the Imperial Chamber should consist of twenty-four Protestant members and twenty-six Catholic, and that the Emperor should receive six Protestants into the Aulic Council, the highest judicial tribunal in the empire. Peace of Westphalia.

This peace may be regarded as the foundation of the whole system of modern European politics, of all modern treaties, of what is called the freedom of Germany, and of the balance of power among all the countries of Western Europe. Yet let it not be forgotten that, although this long war was ended by one of the most glorious treaties of modern times, and

Ch. 9. A. D. 1648. although it resulted in the religious liberties of Germany, its immediate effects were most disastrous and melancholy. Expeditions were carried on, apparently with no other view than to desolate. Disease and famine committed greater ravages than the sword itself. It is said that twelve millions of people vanished from the land. In all the campaigns the greatest and most unnecessary enormities were inflicted. The fields were allowed to run to waste. Forests sprang up in places previously under cultivation. Vice was carried to its utmost excess. "And such was the state of triumphant crime that men, in despair, denied the existence of a deity, declaring that, if there were a God in heaven, he would not fail to destroy, with thunder and lightning, a world of such sin and shame."

Results of the war.

REFERENCES. — Schiller's "History of the Thirty Years' War;" Kohlrausch's "History of Germany;" see also a history of Germany in Dr. Lardner's "Cyclopædia;" "History of Sweden;" Michell's "Life of Wallenstein;" Von Raumur's "History;" Plank "On the Political Consequences of the Reformation;" and Coleridge's "Wallenstein." The "History of Schiller" is exceedingly interesting and beautiful.

CHAPTER X.

THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIII., AND THE ADMINISTRATIONS OF CARDINALS RICHELIEU AND MAZARIN.

Ch. 10

A. D. 1610 to 1614.

WHILE Germany was rent with civil commotions, and the power of the emperors was limited by the stand taken against it by the Protestant princes, France was ruled with an iron hand, and a foundation was laid for the despotism of Louis XIV. The energetic genius of Cardinal Richelieu, during the whole period of the thirty years' war, affected the councils of all the different courts of Europe. He was indisputably the greatest statesman of his age and nation. To him France is chiefly indebted for the ascendency she enjoyed in the seventeenth century.

Regency of Mary de Medici.

When Henry IV. died, (1610) he left his kingdom to his son Louis XIII., a child nine years of age. The first thing to be done was the appointment of a regent. The Parliament of Paris, in whom this right seems to have been vested, nominated the Queen mother, Mary de Medici; and the young King, in a bed of justice,—the greatest of the royal prerogatives,—confirmed the appointment. This regency was anything but favorable to the interests of the kingdom. The policy of the late King was disregarded, and a new course of measures was adopted. Sully, through whose councils the reign of Henry IV. had been so beneficent, was dismissed. The Queen regent had no sympathy with his views. The greedy courtiers obtained from a lavish Monarch the treasures which the wise care of Henry had amassed, and which she thoughtlessly bestowed in order to secure their fidelity. These nobles carried off, in offices, grants, and various sorts of plunder, twenty millions of livres. The Prince of Condé received, in six years, no less

Ch. 10 — A. D. 1614 to 1624.

than 3,600,000. France rapidly relapsed into the evils of Feudalism, and there was danger even of the destruction of the central power, and the subdivision of the kingdom into petty principalities. The Parliament and the Royal courts were in frequent collision. The roads were infested with robbers, and the laws were unenforced. The foreign policy also was changed, and an alliance was made with the Pope, with Spain, and with the Jesuits.

Concini.

During the regency of Mary de Medici, the person who enjoyed the most power was Concini, an Italian favorite—a courtier, who from a state of needy dependence became a peer of France, a marshal in the army, a governor of one of the most important provinces, and the possessor of immense estates; and all this without having discharged any important public services, and without any other claim than being the husband of the intimate friend of the Queen regent. The King detested him, but was only enabled to get rid of him by assassination. He was too powerful to be brought to justice in the ordinary way.

De Luynes.

Concini was succeeded by a favorite even more unworthy —De Luynes, the young King's falconer. He became constable of France, the highest officer in the realm. His mismanagement and selfishness led to an insurrection of some of the great nobles, among whom were Condé and D'Epernon.

Richelieu.

While the kingdom was thus convulsed with civil war, and in every way mismanaged, Richelieu, Bishop of Luçon, appeared upon the stage. He was a man of high birth, was made doctor of the Sorbonne at the age of twenty-two, and, before he was twenty-five, a bishop. During the ascendency of Concini, he attracted the attention of the Queen, and was selected as secretary of State. Soon after the death of Luynes, he obtained a cardinal's hat, and in 1624 a seat in the council. The moment he spoke, his genius predominated, and the Monarch, with all his pride, bowed to the ascendency of intellect, and yielded, with a good grace, to a man whom it was impolitic to resist.

Ch. 10

A. D. 1624 to 1628.

From that moment the reins of empire were in the hands of a master. Still it was not the policy of the Court to entrust the haughty Cardinal with unbridled power. But when the young King lost his favorite; when his mother defied his authority; when his brother sought to steal his sceptre; when the Prince of Condé and other nobles conspired against his throne; when the Protestants took up arms; when foreign enemies were entering France; when the finances were disordered, and troubles of every sort were accumulating with terrific force, it was necessary for him, timid and betrayed, to take into his service the only man in the kingdom capable of serving him or the country, however unscrupulous and ambitious he might be.

His dangerous ambition.

Three great objects animated the genius of Richelieu, and in the attainment of these he was successful. They were, the suppression of the Huguenots, the humiliation of the great barons, and the reduction of the power of Austria. For these objects he perseveringly contended during twenty years; and his struggles and intrigues to secure these ends constitute the history of France during the reign of Louis XIII.

Objects of Richelieu.

In order to annihilate the political power of the Huguenots, —for Richelieu cared more for this than their religious opinions,—it was necessary that he should possess himself of the city of La Rochelle, on the Bay of Biscay, a strong fortress, which had resisted, during the reign of Charles IX., the whole power of the Catholics, and which continued to be their stronghold. Here they could always retire and be safe, in times of danger. It was strongly fortified by sea, as well as by land; and only a vigorous blockade could exclude provisions and military stores from the people. But England was mistress of the ocean, and supplies from her would always relieve the besieged.

Siege of La Rochelle.

After ineffectual but vigorous attempts to take the city by land, Richelieu determined to shut up its harbour, first by stakes, and then by a boom. Both of these measures failed. But the military genius of the Cardinal was equal to his talents

Ch.10. as a statesman. He remembered what Alexander did at the siege of Tyre. So, with a volume of Quintus Curtius in his hand, he projected and finished a mole, half a mile in length, across a gulf, into which the tide flowed. In some places it was eight hundred and forty feet below the surface of the water, and sixty feet in breadth. At first, the besieged laughed at an attempt so gigantic and difficult. But the work steadily advanced, and the city was finally cut off from communication with the sea. The besieged, in 1628, wasted by famine, surrendered; the fortifications were destroyed, the town lost its independence, and the power of the Huguenots was broken for ever. But no vengeance was taken on the heroic citizens, and they were even permitted to enjoy their religion. Fifteen thousand, however, perished at this memorable siege.

A. D. 1628 to 1642.

Humiliation of Austria.

The next object of Richelieu was the humiliation of Austria. But the detail of his military operations would be complicated and tedious, since no grand and decisive battles were fought by his generals, and no able commanders appeared. Turenne and Condé belonged to the next age. The military operations consisted in frontier skirmishes, idle sieges, and fitful expeditions, in which, however, the Cardinal had the advantage, and by which he gained, since he could better afford to pay for them. All motives of a religious kind were absorbed in his prevailing passion to aggrandize the French monarchy. Had it not been for the intrigues and forces of Richelieu, the peace of Westphalia might not have been secured, and Austria might again have overturned the "Balance of Power."

Depression of the nobles.

The third great aim of the minister, and the one which he most systematically pursued to the close of his life, was the depression of the nobles, whose power was dangerously exercised. They had almost feudal privileges, were numerous, enormously wealthy, corrupt, and dissolute. His efforts to suppress their power raised up numerous conspiracies. But all who conspired against him were fated to feel the power of his vengeance, from which, when roused, no one ever

escaped. And he brought them to justice, not merely as his enemies, but as culprits against the State. He never accused unless he could show the proofs of treason, and thus compel his royal master to maintain the dignity of his crown. Ch. 10. A. D. 1628 to 1642

His greatest enemy was the Queen mother, who had been Regent during the minority of her son, and who was indignant at seeing her counsels disregarded, and her power undermined by the very man whom she had patronized. The contest between the mother and the minister for ascendency over the mind of the King was long and desperate. But Richelieu prevailed, and succeeded in banishing the widow of Henry IV. from the kingdom. In her exile she was subject to many humiliations, and finally died, in neglect and poverty, at Cologne, in the year 1642, heart broken, helpless, and betrayed. She was a dangerous and intriguing woman, but had none of the vices which disgraced Catharine de Medici. Exile and death of Mary

Nor did Gaston, Duke of Orleans, brother of the King, and long heir-apparent to the throne, succeed any better than his mother, in his opposition to the all powerful Cardinal. He, too, was obliged to beg his life for the treasons he committed, and was reduced to political insignificance, in spite of his rank and claims. The Prince of Condé did not rebel against the minister, since he remembered his former imprisonment, through Richelieu's suggestion, in the Bastile. The Duke of Guise, whose family had grasped the sceptre of Henry III., retired into obscurity and exile. The Duke of Soubise, the head of the Protestant party, fled into England. The Duke of Bouillon, Sovereign of Sedan, was compelled to resign his principality, The proud Epernon, who had ruled the councils of Mary of Medici, was completely humiliated. The Duke of Vendôme, natural brother of the King, was obliged to flee to England. The Duke of Montmorency was executed as a culprit. So were the Counts Chalais, Bouteville, and Deschapelles. Cinq-Mars, favorite of the King, and grand equerry, perished on the scaffold. Marshal Bassompierre, the first general in France, was sent to the Bastile. Marshal Ruin of the nobles.

Ch. 10. Marrillac was executed for a pretended peculation. These executions and imprisonments were felt to be a humiliation of the whole body of the nobility, and so completely was the order reduced, that all subsequent combinations failed.

A. D. 1628 to 1642.

Still Richelieu was not satisfied. He resolved to humble the Parliament, because it had opposed an ordinance of the King, declaring the partisans of the Duke of Orleans guilty of treason. It had rightly argued that such a condemnation could not be issued without a trial. "But," said the artful minister to the weak-minded King, "to refuse to verify a declaration, which you yourself announced to the members of Parliament, is to doubt your authority." An extraordinary council was convened, and the Parliament, which was simply a court of judges, was summoned to the royal presence. They went in solemn procession, carrying with them the record which showed their refusal to register the edict. The King received them with stately pomp. They were required to kneel in his presence; their decree was taken from the record and torn in pieces before their eyes, and the leading members were suspended and banished.

Humiliation of the Parliament.

The Court of Aids, by whom the money edicts were registered, also showed opposition. The members left the court when the next edict was to be registered. But they were suspended, until they humbly came to terms. "All the malcontents, the Queen, the Prince, the Nobles, the Parliament, and the Court of Aids hoped for the support of the people, and all were disappointed." Hence Richelieu triumphed.

Suspension of the Court of Aids.

His next usurpation was the erection of a new tribunal for trying State criminals, in which no record of its proceedings should be preserved, and the members of which should be selected by himself. This court was worse than that of the Star Chamber.

The Cardinal minister was now triumphant over all his enemies. He had destroyed the political power of the Huguenots, extended the boundaries of France, and decimated the nobles. He now turned his attention to the internal adminis-

tration of the kingdom. He created a national navy, protected commerce and industry, rewarded genius, and formed the French Academy. He attained a higher pitch of greatness than any subject ever before or since enjoyed in any country; a sway far above that possessed by Wolsey, in England. Wolsey, powerful as he was, lived like a Turkish vizier, in constant fear of his capricious master. But Richelieu controlled the King himself. Louis XIII. feared him, and felt that he could not reign without him. He did not like the Cardinal, and was often tempted to dismiss him, but could never summon sufficient resolution. Richelieu could mount no higher, unless he mounted the throne itself. He was bishop, cardinal, duke, governor of a province, abbot of several monasteries, knight of most of the chivalrous orders of Europe, and prime minister to the King. His ordinary progress was a triumphal procession. He had a guard of honor, like a sovereign. He built the Palais Royal, and adorned it with all the wonders of art. All persons united to do him reverence. The King himself condescended to play the second part in the monarchy, while his throne was raised to the first in Europe.

Ch. 10 — A. D. 1642.

Influence over the King.

But an end came to his greatness. In the year 1642 a mortal malady wasted him away. He summoned to his death bed his royal master; recommended Mazarin as his successor; and died like a man who knew no remorse, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and the eighteenth of his reign as minister. He was eloquent, but his words served only to disguise his sentiments; he was direct and frank in his speech, and yet a perfect master of the art of dissimulation; he could not be imposed upon, and yet was passionately fond of flattery; he was not learned, yet appreciated learning in others, and munificently rewarded it; he was fond of pleasure, and easily fascinated by women, and yet he was cold, politic, implacable, and cruel. Nor was his ordinary life a model of simple greatness. His vanity, ostentation, and pride destroyed the elevation of his character. He aspired to write plays and poetry

His death.

His character.

Ch. 10 — A. D. 1643.

as well as to govern a kingdom. Like Louis XIV., he thought he did all things equally well. He led a life of incessant activity; shunned neither danger nor fatigue; and had the talent of making still more powerful intellects than his own subserve his purposes, as in the case of his friend, Father Joseph, the Capuchin friar, who managed his most difficult negotiations, but who was unrewarded for his services. That he was sincere in his belief that he acted for the glory of France, cannot be questioned; nor can it be doubted that he, more than any other man, contributed to aggrandize the French monarchy. "Nothing of any considerable moment was done in Europe for a whole generation which he had not foreseen or prepared; and until the peace of the Pyrenees, when the genius of Spain bowed in submission to that of France, Anne of Austria, as Regent of the kingdom, continued the policy of the minister who had been her personal enemy; and Louis XIV. himself received it as a precious inheritance, nor did his star pale so long as he remained faithful to its dictates."

His influence over others.

Death of Louis XIII.

Louis XIII. did not long survive this greatest of ministers. Naturally weak, he was still weaker by disease. He was at last reduced to a skeleton. In this state he called a council, nominated his Queen, Anne of Austria, Regent during the minority of his son, Louis XIV., then four years of age, and shortly after died.

Cardinal Mazarin.

Mazarin, the new minister, followed out the policy of Richelieu. The war with Austria and Spain was continued. This was closed, on the Spanish side, by the victory of Rocroi, in 1643, obtained by the Prince of Condé, in which battle twenty-three thousand Frenchmen completely routed twenty-six thousand Spaniards, killing eight thousand, and making six thousand prisoners—one of the bloodiest battles ever fought. The great Condé here obtained those laurels which subsequent disgrace could never take away. The war on the side of Germany was closed, in 1648, by the peace of Westphalia. Turenne first appeared in

the latter campaign of this long war, but gained no signal victory. Ch. 10

A. D. 1643 to 1648.

Cardinal Mazarin, a subtle and intriguing Italian, while he pursued the policy of Richelieu, had neither his genius nor success. He was soon involved in troubles. The aristocracy first rebelled. Had they been united, they would have succeeded; but their rivalries, jealousies, and squabbles divided their strength, and distracted their councils. Their cause was lost; and Mazarin triumphed, more from their divisions than from his own strength.

Intrigues of De Retz.

But a more formidable enemy appeared in the person of De Retz, Coadjutor Archbishop of Paris, and afterwards Cardinal, a man of boundless intrigue, unconquerable ambition, and restless discontent. To detail his plots and intrigues, would be to describe a labyrinth. He succeeded, however, in keeping the country in perpetual turmoil; now inflaming the minds of the people; then exciting insurrections among the nobles; and then, again, encouraging the parliaments in resistance. He never appeared as an actor; but every movement was directed by his genius. He did not escape suspicion; but committed no overt acts by which he could be punished. He and the celebrated Duchess de Longueville, a woman who had as great a talent for intrigue as himself, were the life and soul of the Fronde—a civil war which ended only in the re-establishment of the monarchy on a firmer foundation. As the Fronde had been commenced by a troop of urchins, who at the same time amused themselves with slings, the wits of the court called the insurgents *frondeurs*, or slingers, insinuating that their force was trifling, and their aim mischief.

The Fronde, and its influence on France.

Nevertheless, the Frondeurs kept France in a state of anarchy for six years (1648—1654), being headed by some of the most powerful nobles, and even supported by the Parliament of Paris. The people were on the side of the rebels, since they were ground down by taxation, and hoped to gain a relief from their troubles. But the rebels took the side of the

Ch. 10 oppressed only for their private advantage; and the Parliament itself lacked the perseverance and intrepidity necessary to secure its liberty. The insurrection would probably have been successful, had the people been firm, or the nobles faithful to the cause they defended. But the English Revolution, then in progress, where a king had been executed, shocked the lovers of constitutional liberty in France, and reacted then, as the French Revolution afterwards reacted on the English mind. Moreover, the excesses which the people perpetrated at Paris alarmed the Parliament and the nobles who were allied with it, while it urged on the ministers to desperate courses.

A. D. 1648 to 1650.

The Prince of Condé, whose victories had given him immortality, dallied with both parties, as his interests served. Allied with the court, he could overpower the insurgents; but allied with the insurgents, he could control the court. Sometimes he sided with the minister, and sometimes with his antagonists; but in neither case unless he exercised a power dangerous in any government. Both parties were jealous of him, both feared him, both hated him, both insulted him, and both courted him. At one time he headed the royal troops to attack Paris, which was generally in the hands of the people and of the Parliament; and then, at another, he fought like a tiger to defend himself in Paris against the royal troops. The truth was, he had no sympathy with either the Parliament or the people, while he fought for them; and he venerated the throne, while he rebelled against it.

Position of Condé.

The crafty Mazarin quietly beheld these dissensions, and was sure of ultimate success, even though at one time banished to Cologne. Like a reed, he was ever ready to bend to difficulties he could not conquer. He at last got the Prince of Condé, his brother the Prince of Conti, and the Duke of Longueville in his power. When the Duke of Bourbon heard of it, he said, "He has taken a good haul in the net; he has taken a lion, a fox, and a monkey." But the princes escaped from the net; and, leagued with Turenne,

Course of Mazarin.

Bouillon, La Rochefoucauld, and other great nobles, reached Paris, and were received with acclamations of joy by the misguided people. Then, again, they obtained the ascendant. But this was no sooner gained than the victors quarrelled among themselves, and with the Parliament, for whose cause they professed to contend. Ch. 10 A. D. 1650 to 1654.

It was in their power, when united, to have deprived the Queen Regent of her authority, and to have established constitutional liberty in France. But they would not unite. Condé, the victor, suffered himself to be again bribed by the court. He would not persevere in his alliance with either nobles or Parliament. He did not unite with the nobles, because he felt that he was a prince. He did not continue with the Parliament, because he had no sympathy with freedom. The Parliament, at length, grew weary of war and of popular commotions, and submitted to the court. Dissensions of the nobles.

The power of the insurgent nobles now declined. De Retz, the arch intriguer, was in 1653 driven from Paris. The Duchess de Longueville sought refuge in the vale of Port Royal. Condé quitted Paris to join the Spanish armies. The rest of the rebellious nobles made humble submission. The people, finding they had nothing to gain from any dominant party, resigned themselves to another long period of political and social humiliation. The magistrates abandoned, in despair and disgust, their high claims to political rights; while the young King, on his bed of justice, decreed that Parliament should no more presume to discuss or meddle with State affairs. The submissive Parliament registered, without a murmur, the edict which gave a finishing stroke to its liberties. The Fronde war was a complete failure, because all parties usurped powers which did not belong to them, and were jealous of the rights of each other; because it did not consult constitutional forms; because it promoted unnatural alliances; and because it sought to support itself by mere physical strength rather than by moral power, which alone is the secret and glory of all great internal changes. Failure of the Fronde.

Ch.10 A. D. 1654 to 1661.

The return of Cardinal Mazarin to power, as the minister of Louis XIV., was the commencement of his triumphs. His first care was to restore the public finances; his second, to secure his personal aggrandizement. He obtained all the power which Richelieu had possessed; and reproved the King as he would a schoolboy. He enriched and elevated his relatives; married them into the first families of France; and amassed a fortune of two hundred millions of livres, the largest perhaps that any subject has secured in modern times. He even aspired to the popedom; but this greatest of all human dignities he was not permitted to attain. A fatal malady seized him; and the physicians told him he had not two months to live. Some days after he was seen in his dressing gown, among his pictures, of which he was extravagantly fond, and heard to exclaim, "Must I quit all these? Look at that Correggio; this Venus of Titian; this incomparable Deluge of Carracci. Farewell, dear pictures, that I have loved so dearly, and that have cost me so much."

Triumph of Mazarin.

His death.

The Cardinal lingered awhile, and amused his last hours with cards. He expired in 1661; and no minister after him was ever entrusted with such great power. He died unlamented, even by the sovereign whose throne he had preserved, and whose fortune he had repaired. He had great talents in conversation; was witty, artful, and polite. He completed the work which Richelieu began; and at his death left his master the most absolute monarch that ever reigned in France.

REFERENCES.—The numerous Memoirs of this period contain the best history of the reign of Louis XIII.; among which may be mentioned those of Sully, Richelieu, Bassompierre, D'Estrées, Capefique, Montrésor, La Rochefoucauld, D'Epernon, Mazarin, Saint Simon, De Retz, Madame De Motteville, and Mademoiselle De Montpensier. Sir James Stephens' "Lectures" are highly valuable; and Lord Mahon's "Life of the Prince of Condé" is very interesting.

CHAPTER XI.

ENGLAND DURING THE REIGNS OF JAMES I. AND CHARLES I.

Ch. 11

A. D. 1603.

WITH the accession of James I. a new era commences in English history, marked by the growing importance of the House of Commons, and by struggles for civil and religious liberty.

James I. and a new era.

Since the accession of Elizabeth, a great stride had been made by the people, not merely in civilization, but also in their ideas of freedom. The Reformation, especially, had taught rights and duties which before were but imperfectly understood, and the diffusion of knowledge had strengthened the popular convictions.

Differences soon arose between the House of Commons and the monarch on many points, but especially as to the imposition of taxes. And if these did not give much cause of alarm, still discontents were secretly fomented, such as did not exist under the Tudor princes,—not because they were less arbitrary or tyrannical, but because a new power had arisen in England. The middle classes, during the reign of Elizabeth, had been growing in wealth and knowledge. The time came, under the Stuart princes, when this influence began to be felt politically.

Commencement of popular discontents.

The grand peculiarity of this reign, then, was the commencement of those discontents which led gradually to the contest between Royal prerogative and popular freedom. Moreover the Puritan difficulties increased; and the Puritans, harassed by religious persecutions, sided with the enemies of the King.

Before, however, the grand struggle between prerogative

and Henry arrested the attention of Europe, several events occurred worthy of historical notice.

The most memorable was the Gunpowder Plot, planned by desperate Roman Catholics, for the murder of the King, the destruction of both Houses of Parliament, and the restoration of ancient superstitions. The plot was seasonably and providentially discovered, just as Guy Fawkes was preparing to execute his diabolical purpose. It was supposed that the Jesuits were at the bottom of the conspiracy, and many of them were arrested and executed.

The discovery of the plot was the greatest blow which Romanism ever received in England: unhappily it led to a bitter persecution of the Catholic population. Penal statutes were fearfully multiplied: no Catholic was permitted to live in London: to practise surgery, physic, or law, to act as judge, clerk, or officer in any court, or to perform the office of administrator, executor, or guardian. Catholics were compelled, under heavy penalties, to have their children baptized by Protestants, and were prohibited from serving in Protestant families. They were outlawed: their houses might be broken open, and their furniture destroyed with impunity. In short, they were subjected to the most cruel vexations and penalties that the Protestants were in Mary's reign to Catholics or Nonites, but with less excuse, since the Protestants in England possessed more enlightened principles of toleration than did their Catholic adversaries.

The earliest favourite of this reign was the great lord Carr, a Scottish adventurer, created Viscount Rochester, and Earl of Somerset, and, virtually, prime minister. He married the Countess of Essex, and his only daughter became the wife of the first Duke of Bedford. He was in whose success to his personal beauty and lively manners. But a rival he was supplanted in the royal favour by George Villiers, who became Duke of Buckingham, and who enjoyed a degree of power over the king to subvert the constitution, and an-

dered to all his weaknesses and follies. After having gained an elevation which rendered him odious to the English people he was, in the next reign, assassinated. Ch. 11 A. D. 1615 to 1621.

But James not only permitted himself to be guided by favorites, he neglected the higher interests of the nation. He granted patents for odious monopolies, made grievous exactions, sold justice, and carried on ignominious war. In 1618 he allowed Sir Walter Raleigh to be executed, because he was unfortunate in an expedition to the coasts of South America. His whole conduct was stained by treachery and meanness. Every form of tyranny was in turn practised. People were dragged to the Star Chamber on frivolous accusations, and subjected to heavy penalties; while the King, in order to supply his necessities, freely resorted to illegal means of raising money, and intimated his determination to tax the people himself, if such supplies as he demanded were not granted by the Commons. Abuse of royal authority.

The Parliament, however, was composed of a different class of persons from those who had yielded to the Tudors. Many of the leading members were Puritans, who were inimical to the King both on religious and political grounds. These men insisted on their privileges with great tenacity, and ridiculed the idea of a "divine right" to do wrong. They instituted inquiries into monopolies, and attacked the monstrous abuses of purveyance, and other feudal usages, by which the King became guardian towards, and received the profits of estates during minority. In addition to this they refused to grant even necessary supplies, unless certain grievances were redressed; among which the High Commission Court was the most odious. Parliamentary opposition.

But neither monopolies, nor feudal prerogatives, nor arbitrary taxation inflamed the Commons so much as the projected marriage between the Prince of Wales and the Infanta of Spain. James flattered himself that this Spanish match, to arrange which he had sent Buckingham to the Court of Madrid, would procure the restitution of the Palatinate to the Spanish match.

Ch. 11 A. D. 1622 to 1625.

Elector, who had been driven from his throne. But the Commons thought differently. They, as well as the people generally, were indignant at the inactivity of the Government in not sending aid to the distressed Protestants of Germany; and the loss of the Palatinate was regarded as a national calamity. They saw that no good could accrue from an alliance with the enemies and persecutors of these Protestants; but, on the other hand, much evil. As the constitutional guardians, therefore, of the public welfare and liberty, they framed a remonstrance to the King, representing the overgrown power of Austria as dangerous to the liberties of Europe, and entreated His Majesty to take up arms against Spain, then allied with Austria, and by whose wealth Austrian armies were supported.

Contentions with Parliament.

James was inflamed with indignation at this remonstrance, and forthwith wrote a letter to the Speaker of the House of Commons, commanding him to admonish the members "not to presume to meddle with matters of State, which were beyond their capacity, and especially not to touch on his son's marriage." The Commons, not dismayed, and conscious of strength, sent up a new remonstrance, in which they affirmed that they were entitled to interpose with their counsel in all matters of State, and that entire freedom of speech was their ancient and undoubted right, transmitted from their ancestors. The King, in reply, told the Commons that "their remonstrance was more like a denunciation of war, than an address of dutiful subjects, and that their pretension to inquire into State affairs was a plenipotence to which none of their ancestors, even during the weakest reigns, had ever dared to aspire." He further insinuated that their privileges were derived from royal favor. On this, the Commons framed another protest,—that the liberties, franchises, privileges, and jurisdictions of Parliament are the ancient and undoubted birthright of Englishmen, and that every member has the right of freedom of speech. This protest they entered upon their journals, upon which James lost all temper, ordered the

clerk to bring him the journals, erased the protestation with his own hand, in presence of the judges and the council, and then dissolved the Parliament. Ch. 11 A. D. 1625.

The prosecution and the Spanish match became at length so odious to the nation, that Buckingham, to preserve his popularity, broke off the negotiations, by a system of treachery and duplicity as hateful as were his original efforts to promote it. War with Spain was the result of the insult offered to the Infanta and the Court. An alliance was now made with France, and Charles ultimately married Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. War with Spain.

Shortly before this (March 27, 1625), King James died, from a disease produced by anxiety and gluttony, after a reign in England of twenty-two years. His son Charles I. was immediately proclaimed King.

Charles was twenty-five years of age when he began to reign. In many respects he was wiser and better than his father, but he had the same extravagant notions of the royal prerogative, the same contempt for the people, the same dislike of constitutional liberty, and the same resolution to maintain the absolute power of the Crown, at any cost.

With his reign commences unquestionably the most exciting period of English history; a period to which historians have given more attention than to any other great historical era, the French Revolution alone excepted. Any attempt to detail the events of this exciting age and reign would be, in this brief history, absurd; yet some notice of its more important transactions cannot be avoided. Reign of Charles.

The House of Commons, which had gradually acquired strength, spirit, and popularity during the reign of James, fully perceived the difficulties and necessities of Charles, but made no adequate or generous effort to relieve him from them.

The King ascended the throne burdened by the debts of his father, and by an expensive war, which the Commons had excited, but were not willing to pay for. They granted him, to

Ch. 11 meet his difficulties and to maintain his honor, the paltry sum of one hundred and forty thousand pounds, and the duties of tonnage and poundage—not, as was customary, for life, but for a year. Of course the money was soon spent, and the King wanted more. The Commons now resolved not to grant necessary supplies to carry on the Government, unless the King would part with the prerogatives of an absolute prince, and give up privileges which had now become hateful in the eyes of the people. Charles was not the man to make such a bargain. Civil war became therefore inevitable, provided both parties were resolved on maintaining their ground.

A. D. 1625 to 1628.

Contention with the Commons.

Charles fancied that the Commons could be intimidated into submission; and even on the supposition that he should be brought into collision with his subjects, he still imagined that he could put down the spirit of resistance. In both of these suppositions he erred. The Commons were firm and strong, because they had the sympathy of the people, who believed conscientiously (especially the Puritans) that they were entitled, alike by the principles of justice, and by the spirit of the constitution, to civil and religious liberty, in the highest sense of that term. They believed that these rights were inalienable and absolute; that, in consistency with them, they could not be taxed without their own consent; and that under all circumstances their constitutional guardians, the Commons, should be unrestricted in debate.

The contest soon ended in an appeal to arms. Charles was not without friends, and some of his advisers were men of sagacity and talent. It is true they did not fully appreciate the weakness of the King, or the strength of his enemies; but they saw his distress, and they tried to remove it. They recommended violent courses; they urged him to grant new monopolies; to extort fines; to exercise all his feudal privileges; to pawn the crown jewels, if necessary, in order to raise money—for money, at all events, he must have. They advised him to arrest turbulent and incendiary members of the Commons; to prorogue and dissolve parliaments; to raise forced loans; to im-

Embarassment of the King.

pose new duties; to shut up ports; to levy fresh taxes, and to raise armies friendly to his cause. In short, they recommended measures which both they and the King knew to be unconstitutional, but which they justified on the ground of necessity. The King, in his perplexity, did what his ministers advised. But every person who was sent to the Tower, every new tax, every sentence of the Star Chamber, every seizure of property, every arbitrary command, every violation of the liberties of the people, only raised up new enemies, and inflamed the people with new discontents.

Ch. 11 A. D. 1625 to 1628.

At first the Commons supposed that they could obtain what they wanted—a redress of grievances, if the King's favorite adviser and minister were removed. For they all hated Buckingham, and all sought his downfall. So they violently attacked his administration, and impeached him. But he was shielded by the King, and appointed to command an expedition to relieve La Rochelle, then besieged by Richelieu. As he was about to embark at Portsmouth he was stabbed by Felton, a religious fanatic, and afterwards buried with great state in Westminster Abbey. This event took place in 1628, about three years after the accession of the King.

Death of Buckingham.

Meanwhile the indignant Commons persevered with their work, and passed what is called the "Petition of Right,"—a string of resolutions which asserted that no freeman ought to be detained in prison, without being brought to trial, and that no taxes could be lawfully levied, without consent of the Commons—the two great pillars of the English Constitution. To this petition the King's assent was unwillingly if not insincerely given; and the Commons, for once gratified, voted supplies.

Petition of Right.

But Charles had no notion of keeping his word, and soon resorted to unconstitutional measures, as before. A fitting agent for the accomplishment of his purposes was soon found in the person of Thomas Wentworth, a man of wealth, talents, energy, and indomitable courage; who had, in the early part of his career, defended the cause of liberty, and even suffered

Ch. 11 imprisonment rather than contribute to an unlawful loan.

A. D. 1628 to 1637. But his patriotism was not equal to his ambition. Seduced by a peerage, and by the love of power, he went over to the side of the King, and defended his arbitrary rule as zealously as he had before advocated the cause of constitutional liberty. He was created Viscount Wentworth, and afterwards Earl of Strafford, and soon became the most prominent man of the royalist party.

Earl of Strafford.

Under the rule of this minister, whom all feared, the Puritans everywhere fled—preferring the deserts of America, with freedom, to the fair lands of England, with liberty trodden under foot. Pym, Cromwell, Hazelrig, and even Hampden, are said to have actually embarked, but were prevented from sailing by the Government. The reigns of both James and Charles are memorable for the struggles of this intrepid religious party, in which were enrolled some of the finest minds and most intelligent patriots of the country.

While the King and his minister were raising forced loans and contributions, sending members of the House of Commons to the Tower, fining, imprisoning, and mutilating the Puritans, a new imposition called *ship money* brought matters to a crisis.

Ship money.

This tax, devised by Chief Justice Finch and Attorney-General Noy, two subordinate, but unscrupulous tools of despotism, was designed to extort money from the inland counties, as well as from the cities, for furnishing ships—a demand that Elizabeth, in all her power, did not make, even when threatened by the Spanish Armada. Clarendon admits that this tax was not for the support of the navy, "but for a spring and magazine which should have no bottom, and for an everlasting supply on all occasions." This the nation completely understood, and resolved desperately to resist.

John Hampden.

John Hampden, though a wealthy man, refused to pay the share assessed on him, which was only twenty shillings, deeming it an illegal tax. He was proceeded against by the Crown lawyers, and appealed to a decision of the judges in regard to

the legality of the tax. The King permitted the question to be settled by the lawyers. The trial lasted thirteen days, but ended in the condemnation of Hampden, who had shown great moderation as well as courage, and had won the favor of the people. It was shortly after this, that Hampden and his cousin Oliver Cromwell resolved to leave England; but the King prevented the ships from sailing

Insurrection in Scotland.

About a month after Hampden's condemnation (July, 1637), an insurrection broke out in Scotland, which again hastened revolution. It was produced by the attempt of Archbishop Laud to impose the English liturgy on the Scottish nation, and to supplant Presbyterianism by Episcopacy. The instant Episcopal worship was introduced, by authority, in the cathedral of Edinburgh, an insurrection broke out, which rapidly spread through all parts of the country. An immense multitude came to Edinburgh to protest against the innovation, and crowded all the houses, streets, and halls of the city. The King ordered the petitioners home, without answering their complaints. They obeyed the injunction, but soon returned in greater numbers. All classes joined the insurgents, who at last bound themselves, by solemn league and covenant, not to separate until their rights and liberties were secured. Force, of course, was necessary to reduce the rebels, and civil war commenced in Scotland. But war increased the necessities of the King, and he was compelled to make peace with the insurgent army.

Royal misrule

Eleven years had now elapsed since the dissolution of the last parliament, during which the King had attempted to rule without one, and had resorted to all the expedients that the ingenuity of the Crown lawyers could suggest, in order to extort money. Imposts fallen into desuetude, monopolies abandoned by Elizabeth, royal forests extended beyond the limits they had in feudal times, fines past all endurance, confiscations without end, imprisonments, tortures, and executions, — all marked these eleven years.

At last the King's necessities compelled him to summon

Ch. 11 another parliament. He had exhausted every expedient to raise money. His army clamoured for pay; and he was overburdened with debts.

A. D. 1640.

On the 13th of April, 1640, the new Parliament met. It only lasted until the 5th of May, when it was abruptly dissolved. On the 3rd of November, its successor, afterwards called the Long Parliament, assembled. It knew its strength, and was determined to exercise it. It immediately took the power into its own hands, and from remonstrances and petitions, it proceeded to actual hostilities.

Impeachment of Strafford.

One of the first acts of the House of Commons was the impeachment of Strafford. He had been just summoned from Ireland, where, as Lord Lieutenant, he had exercised almost regal power, to assist his perplexed and desponding master by his counsels. Reluctantly he obeyed, foreseeing the storm. He had scarcely arrived in London, when the intrepid Pym accused him of high treason. The Lords accepted the accusation; the imperious minister was committed to the Tower, and soon after was tried, condemned, and executed. The impeachment and execution of Archbishop Laud followed about three years afterwards.

Rebellion in Ireland.

A few months after the execution of Strafford, an event occurred which proved exceedingly unfortunate to the royal cause. This was the rebellion in Ireland, and the massacre of the Protestant population, caused, primarily, by the harsh and severe measures of the late Lord Lieutenant. In the course of a few weeks, the English and Scottish colonies, in Ireland, seemed almost uprooted. The Protestants exaggerated their loss; but it is probable that at least fifty thousand were massacred. The local government of Dublin was paralyzed. The English nation was filled with deadly and implacable hostility, not against the Irish merely, but against the Catholics everywhere. It was supposed that there was a general conspiracy among the Catholics to destroy the whole nation; and it was whispered that the Queen herself had aided the revolt. The most vigorous measures were

adopted to raise money and troops for Ireland. The Commons took occasion from the general spirit of discontent and insurrection to prepare a grand remonstrance on the evils of the kingdom, which were traced to a "coalition of Papists, Arminian bishops and clergymen, and evil courtiers and counsellors." The Commons recited all the evils of the last sixteen years, and declared the necessity of taking away the root of them, which was the arbitrary power of the sovereign. Ch. 11 A. D. 1642.

Affairs were thus rapidly advancing, when, on the 3rd of January, 1642, an attempt was made to arrest five of the most refractory and able members of Parliament. These members were Hollis, Hazelrig, Pym, Hampden, and Strode, who were accused of high treason. The Commons refused to surrender their members; upon which the King, on the following day, went down to the House, with an armed force, to seize them. But Pym and others got intelligence of the design of Charles, and had time to withdraw before he arrived. Attempt to seize five Members.

They retired to the city. The night was spent by the citizens under arms; and the next day, the King, alarmed for the consequences of his rash act, came to Guildhall, attended by only three or four lords, and addressed the people, expressing sorrow that they should fear anything from him.

Still the excitement continued, and on the 10th the Royal family left Whitehall, and went to Hampton Court. The House had adjourned until the 11th; and on this day, between two lines of boats, carrying ordnance, and prepared for action, the five members, attended by the sheriffs and the train-bands, proceeded to Westminster. Public excitement.

Having taken their seats, Pym expatiated on the kindness of their reception in the city; the speaker formally thanked the sheriffs; and a guard was appointed for the two Houses. Soon after, 4,000 men from Buckinghamshire, all on horseback, offered their services to the Parliament.

From that day may be dated "the levying of war in Eng-

Ch. 11 land." Then it was, and not till then, that the Commons openly defied the King, who remained in his palace, humbled, dismayed, and bewildered, "feeling," says Clarendon, "the trouble and agony which usually attend generous minds upon their having committed errors;" or as Macaulay puts it, "the despicable repentance which attends the bungling villain, who, having attempted to commit a crime, finds that he has only committed a folly."

A. D. 1642.

Flight of the King.

The King now went into the country to raise forces to control the Parliament, and the Parliament made vigorous measures to put itself and the kingdom in a state of resistance. On the 23rd of April, the King, with three hundred horse, advanced to Hull, and was refused admission by the governor. This was tantamount to a declaration of war. It was so considered. Thirty-two Lords, and sixty members of the Commons immediately departed for York to join the King; the Parliament decreed an army, and civil war began.

The reign of Charles was now virtually ended; that of the Parliament and Cromwell had begun.

REFERENCES. — Clarendon's "History of the Great Rebellion;" Guizot's "History of the English Revolution;" Thurloe's "State Papers;" Rushworth, Whitelock, Dugdale, "Life of Col. Hutchinson;" "Pictorial History of England;" Hume, Macaulay, and Burnet's "History of the Reformation."

CHAPTER XII.

THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION AND OLIVER CROMWELL.

Ch. 12
A. D. 1642.

We have considered the various causes of discontent, both political and religious, which led Parliament, directed by Puritan leaders, to enter into a bloody contest with Charles I. This Civil War, of which Cromwell was the hero, merits particular attention.

Commencement of hostilities.

The refusal of the Governor of Hull to admit the King was, as we have already said, virtually the declaration of war, for which both parties had vigorously prepared.

The royal standard was first raised in Nottingham, while the head quarters of the Parliamentarians were in London. The first action of any note was the battle of Edge Hill (October 23, 1642), but it was undecisive. Both parties hesitated to plunge into desperate war, until, by skirmishings and military manœuvres, they were better prepared for it.

The forces of the belligerents, at this period, were nearly equal; but the Parliamentarians had the ablest leaders. It was the misfortune of the King to have no man of commanding talents as his counsellor, after the arrest of Strafford. Hyde, afterwards Lord Chancellor and Earl of Clarendon, was the ablest of the Royalist party. Falkland and Culpeper were also eminent men; but neither of them was the equal of Pym or Hampden, the latter doubtless the most influential man in England at that time, and the only one who could have prevented the excesses which overturned the throne.

John Hampden.

This great man was removed by Providence from the scene of violence and faction at an early period of the contest. He was mortally wounded in one of those skirmishes in which the

Ch. 12 detachments of both armies had been thus far engaged; and which made the campaigns of 1642—3 so undecided, so tedious, and so irritating. It is now that Oliver Cromwell first appears on the field of action. At the battle of Edge Hill he was captain of a troop of horse; and at the death of his cousin Hampden was colonel. He was also a member of the Long Parliament, and had secured the attention of the members, in spite of his slovenly appearance, and his incoherent though earnest speeches. Under a rough and clownish exterior, his talents were perceived only by two or three penetrating intellects; but they were shortly to appear, and to be developed, not in the House of Commons, but on the field of battle.

A. D. 1643.

Rise of Oliver Cromwell.

The state of the contending parties, for nearly two years after the battle of Edge Hill, was very singular and very complicated. The King remained at Oxford, distracted by opposing counsels, and perplexed by various difficulties. The head quarters of his enemies, at London, were no less the seat of intrigues and party animosities. The Presbyterians, who were the most powerful party, distrusted the Independents, and feared a victory over the King nearly as much as they did a defeat by him; while the dissensions among the various sects and leaders were no secret in the Royalist camp, and doubtless encouraged Charles in his endless intrigues and dissimulations. But he was not equal to decisive measures; and without them, in revolutionary times, any party must be ruined. While he was meditating and scheming, he heard the news of an alliance between Scotland and the Parliament, in which the Presbyterian interest was in the ascendency. This was the first great blow he received since the commencement of the war. His enemies now resolved upon more vigorous measures.

Alliance with the Scots.

The King's forces were still considerable; and he obtained some momentary successes, among which was the relief of York, by his nephew Prince Rupert, when it was besieged by a Parliamentary army.

The next day after the relief of York was fought the famous battle of Marston Moor (July 2, 1644), the bloodiest in the war, which resulted in the entire discomfiture of the Royalist forces, and the ruin of the royal interests in the north. York was captured in a few days. Rupert retreated to Lancashire to recruit his army; and the Marquis of Newcastle, disgusted with Rupert, and with the turn affairs had taken, withdrew beyond seas. The Scots soon stormed the town of Newcastle; and the whole north of England fell into the hands of the victors.

Battle of Marston Moor.

This great battle was decided by the ability of Cromwell, now Lieutenant General in the army of the Parliament. He had distinguished himself in all subordinate stations—in the field of battle, in raising forces, and in councils of war—for which he had been promoted to serve as second under the Earl of Manchester. But his remarkable military genius was not apparent until the battle of Marston Moor. After this victory the eyes of the nation began to be centred upon him as their great leader.

Genius and character of Cromwell.

He was now forty-five years of age; in the vigor of his manhood; burning with religious enthusiasm; and eager to deliver his country from tyranny. He was the idol of the Independent party, which had begun to gain the ascendency. For three years the Presbyterians had been dominant; but they had not realized the hopes or expectations of the enthusiastic advocates of freedom. Their leaders were timid, insincere, and disunited; few among them had definite views respecting the future government of the realm; and they gradually lost the confidence of the nation. Cromwell was now the only man in whom the people reposed entire confidence. Hampden was gone. Pym, the great lawyer and statesman, had died from exhaustion. Essex had gained no laurels in battle. Waller had lost his army by desertion and indecision. The battle of Newbury had borne no fruit, in consequence of the temporizing of Manchester. The Parliament

Enthusiasm of his party.

Ch. 12 and the nation alike felt that a leader was wanted who would pursue his advantages, and adopt more prompt and vigorous measures.

A. D. 1645.

Self-denying Ordinance.

Then was passed (April 8, 1645) the famous Self-denying Ordinance, by which all Members of Parliament were excluded from command in the army; an act designed to get rid of Essex and Manchester, and to prepare the way for the elevation of Cromwell. Sir Thomas Fairfax was appointed to the supreme command; and Cromwell was dispatched into the inland counties to raise recruits. But it was soon obvious that the army could do nothing without him, although remodelled and reinforced; even Fairfax and his officers petitioned Parliament that Cromwell might be appointed Lieutenant General again, and Commander-in-chief of the horse. The request was granted; and Cromwell rejoined the army, of which he was the hope and idol.

Battle of Naseby.

He joined it in time to win the most decisive battle of the war, the battle of Naseby, June 14, 1645. The forces of both armies were nearly balanced; and the Royalists were commanded by the King in person, assisted by his ablest generals. But the rout of the King's forces was complete; his fortunes were prostrated; and he was driven, with the remnant of his army, from one part of the kingdom to the other, while the victorious Parliamentarians were filled with exultation and joy. Cromwell, however, was modest and composed; and ascribed the victory to the God of battles, whose servant he fancied he pre-eminently was.

Other successes

The Parliamentary army continued its successes. Montrose gained the battle of Alford; Bridgewater surrendered to Fairfax; Glasgow and Edinburgh surrendered to Montrose; Prince Rupert was driven from Bristol, and, as the King thought, most disgracefully; which misfortune gave new joy to the Parliament, and caused new thanksgivings from Cromwell, who gained the victory. From Bristol the army turned southward, and encountered what Royalist force there was in that quarter; stormed Bridgewater; drove the Royalist gene-

rals into Cornwall; took Winchester; destroyed Basing House, rich in provisions, ammunition, and silver plate; and completely prostrated all the hopes of the King in the south of England. Charles fled from Oxford secretly, to join the Scottish army. Ch. 12 A. D. 1646.

By the 24th of June, 1646, all the garrisons of England and Wales, except those in the north, were in the hands of the Parliament. In July the Parliament sent their final propositions to the King at Newcastle, which were extremely humiliating, and which he rejected. Negotiations were then entered into between the Parliament and the Scots, which were long protracted; but which finally ended in an agreement, by the Scots, to surrender the King to the Parliament, for the payment of their dues. They accordingly marched home with an instalment of two hundred thousand pounds; and on the 1st of February, 1647, the King was given up, not to the Independents, but to the Commissioners of Parliament, in which body the Presbyterian interest predominated. The Scots betray the king.

The Lords and Commons then voted that the King should be brought nearer London, and new negotiations opened with him. The seizure of the King at Holmby House by Cornet Joyce, with a strong party of horse belonging to Whalley's regiment, and probably at the instigation of Cromwell and Ireton, prevented these designs from being carried into effect. His Majesty was now in the hands of the army, his worst enemy; and, though treated with respect and deference, was guarded closely, and watched by the Independent generals. His imprisonment.

After a time the King was removed from Newmarket to Kingston; from Hatfield to Woburn Abbey; and thence to Windsor Castle, which was the scene of new intrigues and negotiations on his part; on the part of Parliament; and even on the part of Cromwell. This was the King's last chance. Had he improved it, his subsequent misfortunes might have been averted. But he hated both parties; trifled with both; and hoped to conquer both. His duplicity was at length fully exposed, through a letter which Cromwell and Ireton inter- His duplicity.

Ch. 12 cepted, and which proved that he was incapable of fair dealing with any party. They now made up their minds to decided courses. The King was more closely guarded; the army marched to the immediate vicinity of London; a committee of safety was named; and Parliament was intimidated into the passing of a resolution, by which the city of London and the Tower were intrusted to Fairfax and Cromwell. The Presbyterian party was vanquished; its leading members fled to France; and the army had everything its own way. Parliament still was ostensibly the supreme power in the land; but it was entirely controlled by the Independent leaders and generals.

A. D. 1647.

Power of the army.

The victorious Independents then made their celebrated proposals, offering conditions which would have left to the King powers almost as great as are now exercised by the sovereign. But he would not accept them.

Subterfuges of the King.

Shortly after this the King, with the connivance of Cromwell, contrived to escape from Windsor to the Isle of Wight. But at Carisbrook Castle, where he quartered himself, he was more closely guarded than before. Seeing this, he renewed his negotiations with the Scots, and attempted to escape. But escape was impossible. He was now in the hands of men who aimed at his life. A strong party in the army, called the *Levellers*, openly advocated his execution, and the establishment of a republic; and Parliament itself resolved to have no further treaty with him. His only hope was now from the Scots; and they prepared to rescue him.

Ascendency of the Independents.

Although the government of the country was now virtually in the hands of the Independents and of the army, the state of affairs was extremely critical, and none other than Cromwell could have extricated the dominant party from its difficulties. In one quarter was an imprisoned and intriguing King in league with the Scots. In another the Royalist party waiting for the first reverse to rise up again with new strength in various parts of the land. In a third were insurrections, which it required all the vigor of Cromwell to suppress. The

city of London, which held the purse-strings, was at heart Presbyterian, and was extremely dissatisfied with the course affairs were taking. A large, headstrong, levelling, party in the army, clamored for violent courses. Finally, the Scotch Parliament had resolved to raise a force of forty thousand men to invade England and rescue the King. Cromwell must overcome all these difficulties. Who, but he, could have triumphed over so many obstacles, and such apparent anarchy?

War with the Scots.

The first thing he did was to restore order in England, by obtaining leave to march against the rebels, who had arisen in various parts of the country. Scarcely were these subdued, before he heard of the advance of the Scottish army, under the Duke of Hamilton, who had crossed the borders with fifteen thousand men, while Cromwell was besieging Pembroke, in a distant part of the kingdom. But Pembroke soon surrendered; and Cromwell advanced, by rapid marches, against the Scottish army, more than twice as large as his own. The hostile forces met in Lancashire. Hamilton was successively defeated at Preston, Wigan, and Warrington, and finally, taken prisoner at Uttoxeter, on the 25th of August, 1648, when the invading army was completely annihilated.

Invasion of Scotland.

Cromwell now resolved, in his turn, to invade Scotland, and, by a series of military actions, to give to the army a still greater ascendency. Welcomed at Edinburgh by the Duke of Argyle, and styled "the Preserver of Scotland," he healed its divisions in the best way he could, and rapidly retraced his steps to compose greater difficulties at home.

In his absence, the Presbyterians had rallied, and were again negotiating with the King on the Isle of Wight; while Cromwell was openly denounced in the House of Lords as ambitious, treacherous, and perfidious. Fairfax was subduing the rebel Royalists, who made a firm resistance at Colchester; and all the various parties were sending their remonstrances to Parliament.

Among these was a remarkable one from the regiments of Ireton, Ingoldsby, Fleetwood, Whalley, and Overton, which

Ch. 12 imputed to Parliament the neglect of the affairs of the realm;
A. D. 1648. called upon it to proclaim the sovereignty of the people, and the election of a supreme magistrate, and threatened to take matters into their own hands. This was in November, 1648.

The mighty stream of revolution could now no longer be checked. Twenty thousand men had vowed that Parliament should be purged. On the morning of December 6, Colonel Pride and Colonel Rich, with troops, surrounded the House of Commons; and, as the members were going into the House, the most obnoxious were seized and sent to prison; among whom was Primrose, who had lost his ears in the contest against the Crown, Waller, Harley, Walker, and various others, who had distinguished themselves as advocates of constitutional liberty. None now remained in the House of Commons but some forty Independents, who were the tools of the army, and who voted to Cromwell their hearty thanks. "The minority had become a majority,"—not unusual in revolutionary times—and it proceeded in good earnest to the work, which it had long contemplated.

Progress of revolution.

This was the trial of the King, whose apartments at Whitehall were occupied by the victorious general, and whose treasures were lavished on his triumphant soldiers.

On the 17th of December, 1648, in the middle of the night, the drawbridge of the Castle of Hurst, to which the royal prisoner had been removed, was lowered, and a troop of horse entered the yard. Two days after, the King was removed to Windsor. On the 23rd, the Commons voted that he should be brought to trial; and on the 20th of January, 1649, Charles Stuart, King of England, was placed at the bar of the Court of High Commission, in Westminster Hall, to be tried by this self-constituted body for his life. In the indictment he was charged with being a tyrant, traitor, and murderer. To such an indictment the dignified but unfortunate King demurred. He refused to acknowledge the jurisdiction of the court. But the solemn mockery proceeded; and on the 27th sentence of death was pronounced. On the 30th the bloody

Trial and death of the King.

sentence was executed, and the soul of the murdered Monarch appeared before that higher Tribunal, which pronounces judgment upon the motives, as well as upon the actions of mankind. Ch. 12 A. D. 1649.

On that day the House of Commons — but the shadow of a House of Commons, yet ostensibly the supreme authority in England — passed an act prohibiting the Prince of Wales, or any other person, from becoming King of England. On the 6th of February, the House of Peers was decreed useless and dangerous, and was also dispensed with. On the next day royalty was formally abolished. The supreme executive power was then vested in a Council of State of forty members, the president of which was Bradshaw, the relative and friend of Milton, who employed his immortal genius in advocating a new government. The army remained under the command of Fairfax and Cromwell; the navy was controlled by a board of admiralty, headed by Sir Harry Vane; and a greater toleration of religion was proclaimed than had ever been known before. Abolition of Royalty

The Independents pursued their victory with moderation; the Duke of Hamilton, and Lords Holland and Capel, being the only persons executed for treason, while a few others were shut up in the Tower. But it required all the wisdom and vigor both of Fairfax and Cromwell to repress, on the one hand, the violent spirit which had crept into several detachments of the army, and to baffle, on the other, the movements which the Scots were making in favour of Charles Stuart, who had already been proclaimed King by the Parliament of Scotland, and in Ireland by the Marquis of Ormond. Moderation of the Revolutionists.

The insurrection in Ireland first required the notice of the new government. Cromwell accepted the conduct of the war, and the office of lord lieutenant. Dublin and Derry were the only places which held out for the Parliament. All the rest of the country was in a state of insurrection. On the 15th of August, Cromwell and his son-in-law, Ireton, landed near Dublin, with an army consisting only of six thousand foot and three thousand horse; but it was an army of Ironsides and Rebellion in Ireland.

Ch. 12 Titans. In six months the complete reconquest of the country was effected. The policy of the conqueror was severe and questionable; but it was successful.

A. D. 1650.

When the conquest of Ireland was completed, Cromwell hastened to London to receive the thanks of Parliament and the acclamations of the people; and then he hurried to Scotland to do battle with the Scots, who had made a treaty with the Prince, and were resolved to establish Presbyterianism and royalty. Cromwell, now captain-general of the forces of the commonwealth, passed the borders, reached Edinburgh without molestation, and then advanced on the Scottish army of twenty-seven thousand men, under Leslie, at Dunbar, where a desperate battle was fought, which Cromwell gained by marvellous intrepidity and skill. Three thousand men were killed; ten thousand were taken prisoners; and the hopes of the Scots were utterly blasted.

War with the Scots.

The lord-general now made a halt, the whole army sang the one hundred and seventeenth psalm, and then he advanced upon the capital, which opened its gates. Glasgow followed the example; the whole south of Scotland submitted; the Prince fled towards the Highlands; and then took the bold resolution of marching into England, while Cromwell was besieging Perth. Charles reached Worcester before he was overtaken, and established himself there with sixteen thousand men. But it was all in vain. He was speedily attacked by Cromwell, and defeated. With great difficulty he reached France, where he remained until he was brought back by General Monk.

Establishment of the power of Cromwell.

With the battle of Worcester, September 3, 1651, ended the military life of Cromwell. He called it his "Crowning mercy." From that day to the time when he became Protector, the most noticeable point in his history is his conduct towards the Parliament. And this conduct is the most objectionable part of his life and character; for in this it is difficult to exculpate him from violating the principles he professed, and committing the same usurpations which he condemned in Charles.

Ch. 12 A. D. 1652.

The Parliament, or rather the forty Independents, who constituted that body, and who were everywhere ridiculed under the title of the "Rump," now cared only for perpetuating its own existence. But Cromwell was not the man to permit this; especially as he considered it inefficient and careless about the interests of the country. Meeting Whitelock, who then held the great seal, he said that the "army was beginning to have a strange distaste against them; that their pride, and ambition, and self-seeking; their engrossing all places of honor and profit to themselves and their friends; their daily breaking into new and violent parties; their delays of business, and design to perpetuate themselves, and continue the power in their own hands; their meddling in private matters between party and party; their injustice and partiality; the scandalous lives of some of them, do give too much ground for people to open their mouths against them; and unless there be some power to check them, it will be impossible to prevent our ruin." These things Whitelock admitted, but did not see how they could be removed, since both he and Cromwell held their commissions from this same Parliament, which was the supreme authority.

Character of Parliament.

Cromwell replied there was nothing to hope, and everything to fear, from such a body of men; that they would destroy what the Lord had done. "We all forget God," said he, "and God will forget us. He will give us up to confusion, and these men will help it on, if left to themselves." Then he asked the great lawyer and chancellor, "What if a man should take upon himself to be King?"—evidently having in view the regal power. But Whitelock presented such powerful reasons against it, that Cromwell gave up the idea. He then held repeated conferences with the officers of the army, who sympathized with him, and who supported him. At last, while Parliament was about to pass an obnoxious bill, Cromwell hurried to the House, taking with him a file of musketeers, having resolved what he would do. These he left in the lobby, and, taking his seat, listened awhile to the discussion. He

Ambition of Cromwell.

Ch. 12 then rose and addressed the House. Waxing warm, he told them, in violent language, "that they were deniers of justice, were oppressive, profane men, were planning to bring in Presbyterians, and would lose no time in destroying the cause they had deserted." Sir Harry Vane and Sir Peter Wentworth rose to remonstrate, but Cromwell, leaving his seat, walked up and down the floor with his hat on, reproaching the different members, who again remonstrated. But Cromwell, raising his voice, exclaimed, "You are no Parliament. Get you gone. Give way to honester men." Then stamping with his feet, the door opened, the musketeers entered, and the members were dispersed, after giving vent to their feelings in the language of reproach. Most of them wore swords, but none offered resistance.

A. D. 1653.

Parliament destroyed.

His next step was to order the continuance of all the courts of justice, as before, and to summon a new Parliament, the members of which were nominated by himself and his council of officers. This Parliament, composed of one hundred and twenty persons, assembled on the 4th of July, 1653, when Cromwell explained the reasons of his conduct, and set forth the mercies of the Lord to England. He admitted that the Parliament was unconstitutional, since it was not elected by the people of England; but he urged, as his excuse, that, had the elections been left free, the Presbyterians would have been returned as the largest party, and they would have ruined the cause. Having reappointed the old Council of State, abolished the High Court of Chancery, and nominated commissioners to preside in courts of justice, the House, obedient to its master, quietly dissolved, and surrendered all power into the hands of Cromwell, who now assumed the title of Lord Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Cromwell becomes Protector.

On the 16th of December he was installed in his high office, with considerable pomp, in the Court of Chancery, and the new constitution was read, which invested him with all the powers of a king. It, however, ordained that he should rule with the aid of a Parliament, which should have all the

functions and powers of the old Parliaments; that it should not be prorogued or dissolved for the space of five months without its own consent; that it should last three years, and should consist of four hundred and sixty members. It provided for the maintenance of the army and navy, of which the Protector was the head; and decided that the great officers of State should be chosen by approbation of Parliament. Religious toleration was proclaimed, and provision made for the support of the clergy. Ch. 12 A. D. 1654.

Thus was the constitution of the nation changed, and a republic substituted for a monarchy, at the head of which was the ablest man of his age.

War with Holland.

The Dutch war, which had been caused by the commercial jealousies of the two nations, and by the unwillingness of the Prince of Orange, who had married a daughter of Charles I., to acknowledge the ambassador of the new English republic, was now prosecuted with great vigor, and was signalized by the naval victories of Blake, Dean, and Monk, over the celebrated Van Tromp, and De Ruyter, the Dutch admirals. An honorable peace was secured by treaty, in April, 1654.

The war being ended, the Protector had more leisure to attend to business at home. Sir Matthew Hale was made chief justice, and Thurloe, secretary of state; disorganizers were punished; an insurrection in Scotland was quelled by General Monk; and order and law were restored.

Opposition of the new Parliament.

Meanwhile, the new Parliament, the first which had been freely elected for fourteen years, manifested a spirit of opposition, deferred to vote supplies, and annoyed the Protector to the full extent of its power. At the earliest period the new constitution would allow, he summoned them to the Painted Chamber, made them a long speech, reminded them of their neglect in attending to the interests of the nation, while disputing about abstract questions, and then indignantly dissolved them. This took place on the 22nd of January, 1655.

For the next eighteen months, he ruled without a Parliament. During this time, he suppressed a dangerous insurrec-

Ch. 12 tion in England, and carried on a successful and brilliant war against Spain. In the naval war with Spain, Blake was again the hero; during the contest the rich island of Jamaica was conquered from the Spanish, a possession which England has ever since retained.

A. D. 1656. to 1658.

Encouraged by his successes, Cromwell again called a Parliament, which he opened on the 17th of September, 1656, after ejecting one hundred of the members, on account of their political sentiments. The new House voted for the prosecution of the Spanish war, granted ample supplies, and offered to Cromwell the title of King. This he declined. But his Protectorate was continued to him, and he was empowered to nominate his successor.

Cromwell declines the crown.

In a short time, however, it became too plain that the Protector could not rule with a real representation of the nation. So Parliament was once more dissolved, and no further effort was made to restore the constitution of the country.

Henceforth Cromwell governed alone; and he did it well. His armies were everywhere victorious. England was respected abroad, and prospered at home. The most able and upright men were appointed to office. The chairs of the universities were filled with illustrious scholars, and the bench was adorned with learned and honest judges. He defended the great interests of Protestantism on the Continent, and formed alliances which contributed to the political and commercial greatness of his country. He generously assisted the persecuted Protestants in the valleys of Piedmont, and refused to make treaties with hostile powers unless the religious liberties of the Protestants were respected. He lived at Hampton Court, simply and unostentatiously, and to the last preserved the form, and perhaps the spirit, of his early piety.

His conduct as Dictator.

His latter days were restless and unhappy. In perpetual fear of assassination, he wore armour under his clothes, carried pistols in his pockets, and frequently changed his bedchamber. Domestic affliction also pressed heavily upon him. The death of a favorite daughter preyed upon his mind, and melan-

His death.

choly undermined his constitution. He died on the 3rd of September, 1658, the anniversary of his great battles of Worcester and Dunbar, in the sixtieth year of his age. Ch. 12 A. D. 1658 to 1660.

With the death of Cromwell virtually ended the republic. His son Richard was immediately proclaimed Protector. But his reign was short. Deficient in energy, he was unable to cope with the difficulties of his position. A Parliament was called, but the army put an end to it; and in May, 1659, the members of the Long Parliament were invited to resume their trust. A Committee of Safety was then appointed. Richard Cromwell.

In the meantime, the Royalists were not idle. General Monk, whose movements had long perplexed the Republicans, advanced with his army from Scotland, reached London, received the thanks of the House, and was made General of the forces. His object now was the restoration of the Monarchy, which was finally accomplished in May, 1660, when Charles II. was proclaimed King at the gates of Westminster Hall. Return of the King.

REFERENCES.—Carlyle, Vaughan, and D'Aubigné; Neale's "History of the Puritans;" Clarendon's "History of the Great Rebellion;" Guizot's "History of the English Revolution;" Thurloe's "State Papers;" Rushworth, Whitelock and Dugdale; "Life of Col. Hutchinson;" Milton's prose writings; and Foster's "Lives of the Statesmen of the Commonwealth."

CHAPTER XIII.

THE REIGN OF CHARLES II.

Ch. 13 A. D. 1660. Few events in English history have ever been hailed with greater popular enthusiasm than the restoration of Charles II. On the 25th of May, 1660, he landed near Dover, with his two brothers, the Dukes of York and Gloucester. On the 29th of May he made his triumphal entry into London. It was his birthday: he was thirty years of age, and in the full maturity of manly beauty, while his gracious manners and captivating speech made him a universal favorite. The season was full of charms, and the spirits of all classes were buoyant with hope. Everything conspired to stimulate the popular enthusiasm. A long line of illustrious monarchs was restored. An accomplished sovereign, disciplined in the school of adversity, of brilliant talents, amiable temper, fascinating manners, and singular experiences, had returned to the throne of his ancestors, and had sworn to rule by the laws, to forget old offences, and to promote liberty of conscience. The ways were strewn with flowers, the bells sent forth a merry peal, the streets were hung with tapestries; while aldermen with their heavy chains, nobles in their robes of pomp, and ladies with their waving handkerchiefs, filled the balconies and windows. All welcomed the return of Charles. Never was there so great a jubilee in London; and never did monarch receive such addresses of flattery and loyalty. Even the old parliamentarians hailed his return, notwithstanding it was admitted that the Protectorate was a vigorous administration; that law and order were enforced; that religious liberty was maintained; that the rights of conscience were

General rejoicing.

respected; that literature and science were encouraged; that the morals of the people were purified; that the ordinances of religion were observed; that vice and folly were discouraged; that justice was ably administered; that peace and plenty were enjoyed; and that the nation was as much respected abroad as it was prosperous at home. And why was this? How came it to pass that all classes now as ardently desired the restoration as they had formerly favored the rebellion? There can be but one answer to this question. The reign of Cromwell, notwithstanding its many substantial advantages, was odious to the English people. It was a military despotism. This, however unavoidable it might be, was still a hateful fact. The nation could never forget this great insult, or pardon the man who had deprived them of their dearest privileges. The preponderance of the civil power had for centuries characterized the government; and no advantages could atone for its subversion by military rule.

First acts of Charles II.

Again, much was expected of Charles II., and there was undoubtedly much in his character and early administration to warrant expectation. His manners were agreeable. He had no personal antipathies or jealousies. He had selected the wisest and best of all parties to be his counsellors and ministers. He seemed to forget old offences. He was good-natured and affable. He had summoned a free Parliament. His interests were made to appear identical with those of the people. He had promised to rule by the laws; and he had restored, what has ever been so dear to the great body of the nation, the Episcopal Church, in all its quiet beauty and simple grandeur. Above all, he had disbanded the army. The civil power again triumphed over that of the military, and circumstances existed which seemed to render the subversion of liberty very difficult. Was it wonderful, with such prospects, that hope and joy should be in the ascendant?

But Charles was neither a high-minded, honest, or patriotic King. At first, indeed, he did not seem inclined to grasp at greater powers than what the Constitution allowed him. He

Ch. 13 — A. D. 1660 to 1667.

had the right to appoint the great officers of State; the privilege of veto on legislative enactments; the control of the army and navy; the regulation of all foreign intercourse; and the right of making peace and war. But the Constitution did not allow him to rule without a Parliament, or to raise taxes without its consent. The Parliament might grant or withhold supplies at pleasure, and all money bills originated and were discussed in the House of Commons alone. These were the great principles of the English Constitution, which Charles swore to maintain.

Great powers entrusted to Charles

The first form in which the encroaching temper of the King manifested itself was, in causing the Triennial Bill to be repealed. This was, indeed, done by the Parliament, but through the royal influence.

About the same time was passed the Corporation Act, which enjoined all magistrates, and persons of trust in corporations, to swear that they believed it unlawful, under any pretence whatever, to take arms against the King. The Presbyterians refused to take this oath; and were, therefore, excluded from offices of dignity and trust.

Alliance with Louis XIV.

The next most noticeable effort of Charles to render his power independent of the law, was his secret alliance with Louis XIV. This, which was not known to the nation, was the most disgraceful act of his reign. For the miserable stipend of two hundred thousand pounds a year, he was ready to compromise the interests of the kingdom, and to make himself the slave of the most ambitious sovereign in Europe. He became a pensioner of France, and yet did not feel his disgrace. Clarendon, attached as he was to monarchy, and to the house of Stuart, could not join him in these base intrigues; and therefore lost, as was to be expected, the royal favor. He had been the companion and counsellor of Charles in the days of his exile; he had attempted to enkindle in his mind the desire of great deeds and virtues; he had faithfully served him as chancellor and prime minister; he was impartial and incorruptible; he was as much attached to Episcopacy, as he

was to monarchy; he had even advised Charles to rule without a Parliament: and yet he was disgraced because he would not comply with all the wishes of his unscrupulous master. He retreated to the Continent, and there wrote his celebrated history of the Great Rebellion, a partial and bitter narrative, yet a valuable record of the great events of that age of revolution which he had witnessed and detested. Ch. 13 A. D. 1668 to 1678.

Charles received the bribe of two hundred thousand pounds from the French King, with the hope of being made independent of his Parliament, and on the condition of assisting Louis XIV. in his aggressive wars on the liberties of Europe. But this supply was scarcely sufficient even for his pleasures, much less was it adequate to support the ordinary pomp of monarchy. So he had to resort to other means. Bribe accepted by Charles

It happened, fortunately for his encroachments, but unfortunately for the nation, that the English Parliament, at that period, was more corrupt than it had ever been under the Tudor Kings, or than it ever became at any subsequent period under the Hanoverian Princes. It tamely acquiesced in the measures of Charles and his ministers. Its members were bought and sold with unblushing facility, and were even corrupted by the agents of the French King. Venality of the Parliament.

Among the worst acts of the reign was the shutting up of the Exchequer, where the bankers and merchants had been in the habit of depositing money on the security of the funds, receiving a large interest of from eight to ten per cent. The effect was disastrous. The bankers, unable to draw out their money, stopped payment; and a universal panic was the consequence, during which many great failures happened. By this base violation of the public faith, Charles obtained one million three hundred thousand pounds. But it undermined his popularity more than any of his acts. The odium, however, fell chiefly on his ministers, especially those who received the name of the *Cabal*, from the fact that the initials of their names spelt that odious term of reproach. Closing the Exchequer

These five ministers were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham,

Ch. 13 Ashley, and Lauderdale; and they were the great instruments of his tyranny. They aided Charles to corrupt the Parliament and to deceive the nation. They removed all restraints on his will, and pandered to his depraved tastes.

A. D. 1668 to 1678.

Among other infringements on the Constitution was the fining of jurors when they refused to act according to the direction of the judges. Juries were in this way constantly intimidated, and their privileges abridged.

Fining of Juries.

It must not, however, be supposed that the people were universally indifferent to these encroachments because a great reaction had succeeded to liberal sentiments. Before Charles died, the spirit of resistance was beginning to be felt, and some checks to royal power were imposed by Parliament itself. The Habeas Corpus Act, the most important since the declaration of Magna Charta, was passed, and mainly through the influence of one of his former ministers, Ashley, now Earl of Shaftesbury, who had come over to the popular side. Had Charles continued much longer on the throne, it cannot be doubted that the nation would have been aroused to resist his spirit of encroachment, for the principles of liberty had not been proclaimed in vain.

Habeas Corpus.

The administrations of other English Kings are usually interlinked with the whole system of European politics; but the reign of Charles is chiefly interesting in relation to its domestic history. The cabals of ministers, the intrigues of the Court, the pleasures and follies of the King, the attacks he contrived to make on the Constitution without coming into direct warfare with the Parliament, and, above all, cruel religious persecutions, form the distinguishing features of his time.

Court intrigues.

The King was at heart a Roman Catholic; and yet the persecution of the Catholics is one of the most signal events of the reign. We can scarcely conceive, in this age, of the spirit of distrust and fear which then pervaded the national mind in reference to the Romanists. Every calumny was believed. Every trifling offence was exaggerated, and that by nearly all classes in the community.

Ch. 13 A. D. 1678.

The perjuries of Titus Oates, who had solemnly sworn that the Jesuits had undertaken to restore the Catholic religion in England, that they had planned to burn London, that they were plotting a general massacre of Protestants; the detection of papers in the hands of Coleman, unfortunately confirming these statements; and the mysterious disappearance of Sir Edmonsbury Godfrey, an eminent justice of the peace, who had taken the depositions against Coleman, and who was soon after found dead in a field near London, having probably been murdered by some fanatical person in the communion of the Church of Rome;—all these things combined excited the population to an extent that is now scarcely credible. The whole community went mad with rage and fear. The old penal laws were strictly enforced against the Catholics. The jails were filled with victims. London wore the appearance of a besieged city. The houses of Catholics were everywhere searched, and two thousand of them imprisoned. Posts were planted in the streets, that chains might be thrown across them on the first alarm. The military, the train bands, and the volunteers were called out. Forty thousand men were kept under guard during the night. Numerous patrols paraded the streets. The gates of the Palace were closed, and the guards of the city were doubled. Oates was pronounced to be the saviour of his country, lodged at Whitehall, and pensioned with twelve hundred pounds a year.

Sufferings of the Catholics.

Then flowed more innocent blood than had been shed for a long period. Catholics who were noble, and Catholics who were obscure, were alike judicially murdered; and the courts of justice, instead of being places of refuge, were disgraced by the foulest abominations. Every day new witnesses were produced of crimes which never happened, and new victims were offered up to appease the wrath of a prejudiced people. Among these was the Earl of Stafford, a venerable and venerated nobleman, whose only crime was being at the head of the Catholic party.

Execution of Stafford.

Parliament now passed an act that no person should sit in

Ch. 13 A. D. 1660 to 1684.

either House, unless he had previously taken the oath of allegiance and supremacy, and subscribed to the declaration that the worship of the Church of Rome was idolatrous. Catholics were disabled from prosecuting a suit in any court of law, from receiving any legacy, and from acting as executors or administrators of estates.

To all this Charles gave his assent, simply because he was afraid to stem the torrent of popular infatuation.

Sufferings of Dissenters.

But the sufferings of the Catholics, during this reign, were more than exceeded by the sufferings of Dissenters. They were fined, imprisoned, mutilated, and whipped; while the Act of Uniformity, which had restored the old penal laws of Elizabeth, occasioned, on the 24th of August, 1662, the ejection of two thousand clergymen from their livings, and in the next reign led, under the administration of the infamous Jeffreys, to the most atrocious crimes which have ever been committed under the sanction of law.

These men, who, during the great plague of 1665, faced all perils in the discharge of what they felt to be duty, by occupying deserted pulpits, and offering to the people the consolations of religion, were but a few months afterwards rendered incapable of teaching in schools, and forbidden by law to come within five miles of any city, town, or village, in which they had at any time exercised their ministry. Many of them, thus cut off from all means of obtaining a livelihood, suffered most severely from want, while a multitude of others perished in prison.

Execution of Russell and Sydney.

Amongst the saddest events of the reign of Charles must certainly be named the executions of Lord William Russell and Algernon Sydney, which took place in 1683, for supposed implication in a conspiracy known by the name of the Rye House Plot. The former was the son of the Earl of Bedford, and the latter was the brother of the Earl of Leicester. Russell was a devoted Churchman, of pure morals, and greatly beloved by the people. Sydney was a strenuous republican, and opposed to any particular form of church

government. Both were men of high principle and of incorruptible integrity. Nothing could save these illustrious persons from death. They both suffered with great intrepidity; and the friends of liberty have ever since cherished their memory with peculiar fondness. Ch. 13 A. D. 1660 to 1684.

Mr. Macaulay, in his recent History, has presented a graphic picture of the manners and customs of England during this disgraceful reign. It is impossible, in this brief survey, to enumerate those customs; but it is well that attention should be directed to them as affording evidence of the manifest and glorious progress which has been made since that time in all the arts of civilization, both useful and ornamental. Travelling was then difficult and slow, from the badness of the roads and the imperfections of the carriages. Highwaymen were secreted along the thoroughfares, and, in mounted troops, defied the law, and distressed the whole travelling community. The transmission of letters by post was tardy and unfrequent; and the scandal of coffee-houses supplied the greatest want and the greatest luxury of modern times, the newspaper. There was great scarcity of books in the country places, and the only press in England north of the Trent seems to have been at York. Few rich men had libraries as large or valuable as are now common to shopkeepers and mechanics; while the literary stores of a lady of the manor were confined chiefly to the prayer book and the receipt book. The drama was the only department of literature which compensated authors, and this was scandalous in the extreme. The roads. Literature.

The city clergy were most respectable; and the pulpits of London, occupied by Sherlock, Tillotson, Wake, Collier, Burnet, Stillingfleet, Patrick, Fowler, Sharp, Tennison, and Beveridge, men who afterwards became bishops, and who still rank as ornaments of the sacred literature of their country, were probably never more creditably filled. But the country clergy, as a whole, were ignorant and depressed. Not one living in fifty enabled the incumbent to bring up a family comfortably or respectably. Nor was the condition of the The clergy.

Ch. 13 people satisfactory. They had small wages and many privations. They were ignorant and brutal. The wages of laborers only averaged four shillings a week, while those of mechanics were not equal to what some now ordinarily earn in a single day. Both peasants and artisans were ill paid and ill used; they frequently died miserably and prematurely, from famine and disease. Sympathy for the misfortunes of the poor was then rarely manifested. There were no institutions of public philanthropy. Jails were unvisited by the ministers of mercy, and the abodes of poverty were left by a careless generation to become the dens of infamy and crime. Such was England two hundred years ago; and there is no delusion more unwarranted by sober facts than that which supposes that those former times were better than our own, in anything which abridges the labor, or alleviates the miseries of mankind.

A. D. 1684.

Condition of the people.

REFERENCES.—Of all the works which have yet appeared, respecting this interesting epoch, the new History of Macaulay is the most brilliant and instructive. Mackintosh's fragment on the same period is, however, more philosophical, and possesses great merit. Lingard's History is also valuable on this reign, and should be consulted. The lives of Milton, Dryden, and Clarendon, should be read in this connection. Hallam has admirably treated the constitutional history of these times. Temple, Pepys, Dalrymple, Rymeri Fœdera, the Commons' Journals, and the State Trials, are not so easily accessible.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE REIGN OF JAMES II., AND THE SECOND ENGLISH REVOLUTION.

Another instructive chapter in English history must be presented before we can view with advantage contemporaneous events on the Continent. During nearly the whole reigns of Charles I., Cromwell, Charles II., James II., and William III., France was governed by a single monarch, Louis XIV., whose influence on English politics was both great and baneful. We shall turn thither when we have completed that portion of the domestic history of England which especially relates to the progress of those royal encroachments which eventually hurled the Stuarts from the throne.

Ch. 14
A. D. 1685.

Charles II. died on the 6th of February, 1685, and his brother, the Duke of York, ascended the throne, without opposition, under the title of James II.

Accession of James.

He retained most of the great officers who had served under his brother. Rochester became prime minister, Sunderland kept possession of the Seals, and Godolphin was made lord chamberlain.

The Commons voted him one million two hundred thousand pounds, and the Scottish Parliament added twenty-five thousand pounds more, with the Customs for life. But this sum he did not deem sufficient for his wants, and therefore, like his brother, applied for aid to Louis XIV., and consented to become his vassal, for the paltry sum of two hundred thousand pounds. James received the money with tears of gratitude, hoping by this infamous pension to rule the nation without a parliament. The transaction was, of course, a secret one.

Vote of the Commons.

Ch. 14 — A. D. 1685.

He was scarcely crowned, before England was invaded by the Duke of Monmouth, (natural son of Charles II.,) and Scotland by the Duke of Argyle, with a view of ejecting James from the throne.

Both these noblemen were still exiles in Holland, and both were justly obnoxious to the Government for their treasonable intentions and acts. Argyle was at first unwilling to engage in an enterprise so desperate as the conquest of England; but he was an enthusiast, was at the head of the most powerful of the Scottish clans, the Campbells, and trusted that a general rising throughout Scotland would enable him to strike a blow for liberty and the Kirk.

The Duke of Argyle.

Having concerted his measures with Monmouth, he set sail from Holland on the 2nd of May, 1685, and landed at Kirkwall, one of the Orkney Islands. But his objects were well known, and the whole militia of the land were under arms to resist him. He, however, collected a force of two thousand five hundred Highlanders, and marched towards Glasgow. There he was miserably betrayed and deserted. His forces were dispersed, he himself was seized while attempting to escape in disguise, and shortly after he was beheaded in Edinburgh. His followers were treated with great harshness, but the rebellion was completely suppressed.

Landing of Monmouth.

Monmouth had agreed to sail in six days from the departure of Argyle; but he lingered at Brussels, and did not land in England until the middle of June. He immediately issued a proclamation, but failed in attracting many adherents. He was unprovided with money, generals, or troops. A few regiments were hastily raised from the common people, and with these he advanced from Dorsetshire, where he had landed, into Somersetshire. At Taunton he received a flattering reception, all classes received him with acclamations, and twenty-six young ladies presented him with standards and a Bible, which he kissed and promised to defend.

But all this enthusiasm was soon to come to an end. He made innumerable blunders, wasted his time in vain attempts

to drill the peasants and farmers who followed his fortunes, and then slowly advanced through the west of England, where he hoped to be joined by the body of the people. But all men of station and influence stood aloof. Discouraged and dismayed, he reached Wells, and pushed forward to capture Bristol, then the second city in the kingdom. He was again disappointed. He then turned his eye to Wiltshire; but when he arrived at the borders of that county, he found that none of the bodies on which he had calculated had made their appearance. Ch. 14 A. D. 1685.

At Phillips Norton a slight skirmish took place, which ended favorably for Monmouth, in which the young Duke of Grafton, natural son of Charles II., distinguished himself against his half brother; but Monmouth was discouraged, and fell back on Bridgewater. Meanwhile the royal army approached, and encamped at Sedgemoor. Here a decisive battle was fought, which proved fatal to the rebels. Monmouth, when all was lost, fled from the field, and hastened towards the British Channel, hoping to gain the Continent. He was found near the New Forest, concealed in a ditch, and exhausted by hunger and fatigue. All that was now left him was, to prepare for death. But he clung to life, with singular tenacity. Abjectly and meanly did he sue for pardon from one who never forgot or forgave a political offence. He was transferred to London, lodged in the Tower, and there executed. Battle of Sedgemoor.

Monmouth's rebellion was now completely suppressed, and signal vengeance was inflicted on all who were concerned in it. No mercy was shewn, on the part of government, to any party or person.

Of the agents of James in punishing those who had been concerned in the rebellion, two stand pre-eminent for cruelty, Colonel Kirke and Judge Jeffreys. By the former one hundred captives were put to death during the week which succeeded the battle. By the latter was carried on a more systematic slaughter under the sanction of law. James wished Agents of James.

Ch. 14 the most summary vengeance inflicted on the rebels, and Jeffreys, with tiger ferocity, was ready to execute his will.

A. D. 1685. Nothing is more memorable than the "bloody assize" which he held in those counties through which Monmouth had passed. Nothing could exceed the cruelty and brutality of the judge. "Show me," said he, "a Presbyterian, and I will show thee a lying knave. Presbyterianism has all manner of villany in it. There is not one of those lying, snivelling, canting Presbyterians, but, one way or another, has had a hand in the rebellion." He sentenced nearly all who were accused to be hanged or burned; and the excess of his barbarities called forth pity and indignation even from devoted loyalists. It was his boast, that he had hanged more traitors than all his predecessors since the Conquest. On a single circuit, three hundred and fifty were executed; some of whom were people of great worth, and many innocent. Those whom he spared from an ignominious death were sentenced to the most cruel punishments—to the lash or the pillory, to imprisonment in the foulest jails, to mutilation, to banishment, and to heavy fines.

Cruelties of Jeffreys.

The power of James was now, to all appearance, consolidated; he therefore began, without disguise, to advance the two great objects which were dearest to his heart—the restoration of the Roman Catholic religion, and the attainment of despotic power.

Removal of Catholic disabilities.

To accomplish these ends, he determined to elevate Catholics to the highest offices of the State, in defiance alike of the laws and of the wishes of the nation. He accordingly gave them commissions in the army; made them his confidential advisers; introduced Jesuits into London; received a Papal nuncio, and offered the livings of the Church to needy adventurers.

By means of the dispensing power, a prerogative he had inherited, but which had never been strictly defined, he granted to the whole Roman Catholic body a dispensation from all the statutes which imposed penalties and tests. A

general indulgence was proclaimed, and the courts of law were compelled to acknowledge that the right of dispensing had not been infringed. Four Catholic noblemen were then admitted as privy counsellors, and some clergymen, converted to Romanism, were permitted to hold their livings. James now made no secret of his intentions to restore the Catholic religion, and systematically labored to destroy the Established Church. In order to effect this, he created a tribunal, which did not materially differ from the celebrated High Commission Court of Elizabeth. This court, not content with depriving numerous clergymen of their spiritual functions, because they would not betray their own church, proceeded to sit in judgment on the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge,—institutions which had always befriended the Stuart Kings in their crimes and misfortunes. James was infatuated enough to quarrel with these great bodies, because they would not sanction measures intended to overturn a church which it was their duty and interest to uphold. The King had commanded Cambridge to bestow the degree of master of arts on a Benedictine monk, which was against the laws of the University and of Parliament. The University refused to act against the law, in consequence of which, the senate was summoned to the Court of High Commission, and the vice-chancellor was deprived of his office and emoluments. James now insisted on placing a Roman Catholic in the presidential chair of Magdalen College, one of the richest in the University of Oxford. The fellows refused to elect the royal nominee, and chose John Hough instead.

Ch. 14 A. D. 1686.

Abuse of the prerogative.

The King, enraged at the opposition he received from the University, resolved to visit it. On his arrival, he summoned the fellows of Magdalen College, and commanded them to obey him in the matter of a president. They still held out, and the King, mortified and enraged, quitted Oxford to resort to bolder measures. A special commission was instituted. Hough was forcibly ejected, and the Bishop of Oxford installed. The fellows were expelled from the University by a

Opposition of the Universities.

Ch. 14 royal edict, and pronounced incapable of ever holding any church preferment.

A. D. 1687. All these severities were blunders. The nation was indignant; the clergy alienated; and the aristocracy inflamed to defiance.

Insults to the nation.

The King, nevertheless, for a time prevailed against all opposition; and, now that the fellows of Magdalen College were expelled, he turned it into a Popish seminary, admitted in one day twelve Roman Catholics as fellows, and appointed a Roman Catholic bishop to preside over them. This last insult was felt to the extremity of the kingdom; and bitter resentment everywhere took the place of former loyalty. James was now regarded, even by his old friends, as a tyrant, and as a man doomed to destruction. Nothing, indeed, short of infatuation, could have led him to seek the ruin of a church which the other Stuart Kings had always regarded as the surest and firmest pillar of the throne.

Corruption of Parliament.

But James resolved to persevere. The sanction of Parliament was now felt to be necessary to the success of his schemes; but the sanction of a free parliament it was impossible to obtain. He resolved, therefore, to bring together, by corruption and intimidation, by violent exertions of prerogative, by fraudulent distortions of law, an assembly which should call itself a parliament, and be willing to register any edict he proposed. Accordingly, every placeman, from the highest to the lowest, was made to understand that he must support the throne or lose his office. A committee of seven privy counsellors sat at Whitehall for the purpose of regulating the municipal corporations. Father Petre was made a privy counsellor. Committees, after the model of the one at Whitehall, were established in all parts of the realm. The Lord-Lieutenants received written orders to go down to their respective counties, and superintend the work of corruption and fraud. Half of them refused to perform the ignominious work, and were immediately dismissed from their posts. Nor could those who consented to conform to the wishes and

orders of the King make any progress in their work, on account of the general opposition of the gentry. The country squires, as a body, stood out in fierce resistance. They refused to send up any man to parliament who would vote away the liberties and interests of the nation. The justices and deputy-lieutenants, on their part, declared that they would sustain, at all hazards, the Protestant religion. Ch. 14 A. D. 1688. Opposition of the gentry.

This scheme having failed, it was next resolved to take away the power of the municipal corporations. The boroughs were required to surrender their charters. But a great majority firmly refused to part with their privileges. Prosecuted and intimidated, they still held out. Oxford, by a vote of eighty to two, determined to defend its franchises. Other towns did the same. Meanwhile, all the public departments were subjected to a strict inquisition; and all who would not support the policy of the King were turned out of office.

From motives as impossible to fathom, as difficult to account for, James now, by an order in Council of the 4th of May, 1688, directed that the Declaration of Indulgence, an unconstitutional act, should be read publicly from all the pulpits in the kingdom. The London clergy, the most respectable and influential in the realm, made up their minds to disregard the order, and the bishops sustained them in their refusal. The archbishop and six bishops accordingly signed a petition to the King, which embodied the views of the London clergy. It was presented by the prelates in a body, at the palace. James chose to consider this act as treasonable and libellous, but it was generally and enthusiastically approved by the nation. Declaration of Indulgence.

Nothing could exceed the vexation of the King, when he found that not only the clergy had disobeyed his orders, but that the Seven Bishops were sustained by the people. He immediately resolved to prosecute the bishops for a libel. They were accordingly tried at the Court of the King's Bench. The most eminent lawyers in the realm were employed as their counsel, and all the arts of tyranny were resorted to in The Seven Bishops

Ch. 14 vain by the servile judges. The jury rendered a verdict of
A. D. acquittal, and never, within the memory of man, were such
1688. shouts and tears of joy poured forth by a people. Even the soldiers, whom the King had ordered to Hounslow Heath to overawe London, partook of the enthusiasm and triumph. All classes united in expressions of joy that the tyrant was baffled.

It was now obvious, to men of all parties, and all ranks, that James meditated the complete subversion of English liberty. The fundamental laws of the kingdom had been systematically violated. The power of dispensing with acts of parliament had been strained to the utmost. The courts of justice had been filled with unscrupulous judges; Roman Catholics had been elevated to places of dignity in the Established Church. An infamous and tyrannical Court of High Commission had been created. Persons, who could not legally set foot in England, had been placed at the head of colleges, and had taken their seats at the royal council board. Lord lieutenants of counties had been dismissed for refusing to obey illegal commands; the franchises of almost every borough had been invaded; an army of Irish Catholics, whom the nation abhorred, had been brought over to England; even the sacred right of petition was disregarded; and a free Parliament was prevented from assembling.

Organized resistance

Under such circumstances, and in view of these unquestioned facts, a great conspiracy was set on foot to dethrone the King and to overturn the hateful dynasty.

Among the conspirators were the Earls of Devonshire, Shrewsbury, and Danby; Compton, the Bishop of London; and many others, who had been insolently treated by the court. The designs of the party were communicated to the Prince of Orange by Edward Russell and Henry Sydney, brothers of the two great political martyrs who had been executed in the last reign. The Prince immediately agreed to invade England with a well-appointed army.

Leading conspirators.

On William of Orange, doubtless the greatest statesman and warrior of his age, the eyes of the English nation had long

been fixed as their deliverer from tyranny. But he had delayed taking any decisive measures until the misgovernment and encroachments of James had driven the nation to the borders of frenzy. He now obtained the consent of the States General to the meditated invasion of England, and made immense preparations, which were carefully concealed from the spies and agents of James. They did not escape, however, the scrutinizing and jealous eye of Louis XIV., who remonstrated with the English monarch on his blindness and self-confidence, and offered to lend him assistance. But the infatuated King would not believe his danger, and rejected the proffered aid of Louis with a spirit which ill accorded with his former servility and dependence.

Blindness of the King.

Nor was he aroused to a sense of his danger until the Declaration of William appeared, setting forth his tyrannical acts, a document supposed to have been written by Bishop Burnet, the intimate friend of the Prince of Orange. Then he made haste to fit out a fleet; and thirty ships of the line were put under the command of Lord Dartmouth. An army of forty thousand men—the largest that any King of England had ever commanded—was also sent to the seaboard; a force more than sufficient to repel a Dutch invasion.

Concessions of all kinds were now freely made. The Court of High Commission was abolished; the charter of the City of London was restored. The Bishop of Winchester, as visitor of Magdalen College, was permitted to make any reforms he pleased. But it was too late. Whigs and Tories, Dissenters and Churchmen, were alike ready to welcome their Dutch deliverer. Nor had James any friends on whom he could rely. His prime minister, Sunderland, was in treaty with the conspirators, and waiting to betray him. Churchill, who held one of the highest commissions in the army, and who was under great obligations to the King, was ready to join the standard of William. Jeffreys, the lord chancellor, was indeed true to his allegiance, but his crimes were past all forgiveness, —his services, if offered, would have been spurned.

Tardy concessions of James.

Ch. 14 A. D. 1688.

On the 29th of October, 1688, the armament of William put to sea; and after some delay, owing to unfavorable winds, disembarked without opposition on the 5th of November, at Brixham, near Torbay, in Devonshire. On the 6th the army advanced to Newton Abbot, and, on the 9th, reached Exeter; which, in company with Schomburg, he entered in triumph. The procession marched to the cathedral, the *Te Deum* was sung, and Burnet preached a sermon.

Thus far all things had been favorable, and William was fairly established on English ground.

Critical position of William.

Still his affairs were precarious. He was an invader, and the slightest repulse would have been dangerous to his interests. James was yet a King, and had the control of the army, the navy, and the treasury, Further, he was a legitimate King, whose claims were undisputed. More than all, he was the father of a son, and that son, notwithstanding the efforts of the Protestants to represent him as a false heir, was indeed the Prince of Wales. William had no claim to the throne so long as that Prince was living. Nor had the nobles and gentry flocked to his standard as he had anticipated. It was nearly a week before a single person of rank or consequence joined him. The Earl of Devonshire was in the south, and Churchill had still the confidence of his Sovereign. The forces of the King were greatly superior to his own; and James had it in his power to make concessions, which would have satisfied a great part of the nation.

But William had not miscalculated, nor had he studied in vain, the character of James, or the temper of the English people.

His successes

He was not long doomed to suspense. In a few days, Lord Cornbury, colonel of a regiment, and son of the Earl of Clarendon, deserted the King. Churchill soon followed, the first general officer that ever in England abandoned his colors. The Earl of Bath, who commanded at Plymouth, placed himself at the Prince's disposal, with the fortress which he was intrusted to guard. The invading army swelled in numbers and

importance. Devonshire raised the standard of rebellion. London was in a ferment. James could only make preparations for ignominious flight. On the 11th of December he left London, with the intention of embarking at Sheerness, but was detained by the fishermen on the coast. By an order from the Lords, he was, however, set at liberty, and returned to the capital. William, nearly at the same time, reached London, and took up his quarters at St. James's Palace. Jeffreys, the infamous instrument of James's tyranny, was discovered at Wapping, in the disguise of a sailor, committed to the Tower, and died. Several Catholic priests were also arrested, and their chapels and houses destroyed.

James flies from London.

Meanwhile, Parliament assembled, and deliberated on the state of affairs. Various propositions were made and rejected. The King fled a second time, and the throne was declared vacant. Bnt the crown was not immediately offered to the Prince of Orange, although addresses were made to him as a national benefactor. Many were in favor of a regency; others were for placing the Princess Mary on the throne, and giving to William, during her life, the title of King, and such a share of the administration as she might choose to yield to him.

Parliament assembles.

But William had risked everything for a throne, and nothing less than the crown of England would now content him. He gave the convention to understand that, much as he esteemed his wife, he would never accept a subordinate and precarious place in her Government; that unless he were offered the crown for life, he should return to Holland.

It was accordingly settled by Parliament, that he should hold the regal dignity conjointly with his wife, but that the whole power of the Government should be placed in his hands. The Princess Mary willingly acceded, being devoted to her husband, and unambitious for herself.

Conditions imposed upon William

Thus was consummated the English Revolution of 1688. Of all revolutions, this proved the most beneficent. It closed the long struggle of one hundred and fifty years. The celebrated act of settlement, known as the Declaration of

Ch. 14 Rights, by which the Prince of Orange was called to the throne, simply recapitulated the crimes and errors of James, and re-asserted the ancient rights and liberties of England. It affirmed that the dispensing power had no legal existence; that no money could be raised without a grant of Parliament; and that no army could be kept up in time of peace without its consent; it asserted the right of electors to choose their representatives, the right of Parliament to freedom of debate, and the right of the nation to a pure and merciful administration of justice. William accepted the crown on the conditions proposed, and swore to rule by the laws; an oath which he never violated.

A. D. 1688.

Act of settlement.

REFERENCES.—Macaulay's, Hume's, Hallam's, and Lingard's "Histories;" Sir William Temple's Works; Mackintosh's "Cause of the Revolution of 1688;" Fox's "History of James II.;" Burnet's "History of his Own Times;" "Pictorial History of England."

CHAPTER XV.

LOUIS XIV. OF FRANCE.

Ch. 15

A. D. 1643 to 1715.

Louis XIV.

THE long reign of Louis XIV. commemorates the triumph, in France, of despotic principles, the complete suppression of popular interests, and the almost entire absorption of national ones in the personal aggrandizement of the monarch. Philosophers, poets, prelates, generals, and statesmen, during this reign were regarded only as the satellites of the King. He was the central orb around which every other light revolved, and to contribute to his glory was the one object of national ambition. He was, emphatically, the State. A man who, in the eye of contemporaries, was so great, so rich, so powerful, and so absolute, claims special notice. It is the province of history to record great influences, from whatever quarter they may come.

Characteristics of his reign.

Louis XIV. was born in 1639, and he died in 1715. These seventy-six years may be divided into three periods: the first during his minority, when the country was nominally governed by his mother, Anne of Austria, as regent, but in reality by Cardinal Mazarin, her prime minister, who followed out the policy and principles of Cardinal de Richelieu. The second period pertains to the ministry of Colbert, whom Mazarin, when dying, recommended to his youthful master,—a period of prosperity and glory, when Louis realized all that Richelieu had aimed to secure, and when the French Bourbon monarchy reached its culminating point. The third period is memorable for a great reaction in the national prosperity; when unfortunate wars ended in national shame, when palace and court

Ch. 15 expenses deranged the public finances, and when the foundation was laid of those discontents which ultimately resulted in the triumph of revolutionary principles.

A. D. 1661.

The first period we have already surveyed; we begin, therefore, with the time when Louis XIV. resolved to be his own prime minister, on the death of Mazarin, in 1661. He was then twenty-three years of age—frank, handsome, imperious, and ambitious. His education had been neglected, but his pride and selfishness had been stimulated. During his minority, he had been straitened for money by the avaricious cardinal —but avaricious for his youthful master, since, at his death, besides his private fortune, which amounted to two hundred millions of livres, he left fifteen millions of livres, not specified in his will, all which the King seized, and thus became the richest monarch in Europe.

Wealth of Louis.

He accepted, at first, the ministers, whom the dying cardinal had recommended. The most prominent of these were Le Tellier, De Lionne, and Fouquet. The last, who was intrusted with the public chest, found means to supply the dissipated young monarch with all the money he desired for the indulgence of his expensive tastes and ruinous pleasures.

Fouquet made the public accounts as complicated as possible, in order to be retained in power; but Louis soon mastered the secrets of his bureau, turned out the unfaithful servant, and substituted in his place Colbert, unquestionably the ablest financial minister which France has ever produced. He was both a Protestant and a plebeian; of awkward manners, severe, cold, reserved, but devoted to the interests of his royal master. Sprung from the people, he sought their elevation, so far as he could indirectly promote it, by encouraging the development of the industrial resources of the kingdom. He repaired roads, built bridges, dug canals, and instituted a navy. He recognized the connection between works of industry and the development of genius; and saw the influence of science on the production of riches; of taste on industry; and of the fine arts on manual labor. He instituted the academy of sciences, of inscriptions,

Colbert, Minister of Finance.

of belles lettres, of sculpture, and of architecture; founded the school of law; built the observatory, and gave pensions to learned men.

But he was not allowed to follow out his plans as completely as he wished, his chief duty being to provide money for Louis to spend. Moreover, the monarch was eager for undivided sovereignty, and was jealous even of his ministers. He wished to originate everything himself, and looked upon the kingdom as a man looks upon his estates,—as a property which he had a right to dispose of as he pleased. When he said, "l' état, c'est moi," he spoke the innermost sentiment of his soul, and revealed the leading principle which characterized his reign. By nature, by education, and by circumstances, he was an egotist, and his vanity, selfishness, and ambition, appeared in all the events of his life.

Egotism of the King.

To the developments of this egotism we must direct attention, both in those things which he did to gratify it, and those which he opposed as interfering with it. This vice was the mainspring of his wars, of his courtly extravagance, and of his religious persecutions.

As the next chapter will be entirely devoted to the wars in which he engaged, and also those which were carried on against him, in order to preserve the balance of power, we shall consider, in this chapter, simply the domestic history of France during his reign.

It was the splendor of the court which chiefly arrested the eyes of contemporaries. No man ever loved pomp and magnificence more than Louis XIV.; nor could he even forget for a day, that he was '*the One*' whom it was the duty of his subjects to bow down before, with every mark of self abnegation and humility.

Court extravagance.

Soon after the death of Mazarin he projected the building of Versailles, on a scale of grandeur then unknown in Europe, where he might surround himself with all that was noble, grand, or intellectual in France, and where he might reign as an Olympian deity, or as a dispenser of universal favors, the

Ch. 15 object of constant panegyric. In this magnificent abode he devoted his leisure to the most intoxicating pleasures, and to the most ruinous expenditure.

A. D. 1670.

The goddess of this court was not the Queen of France, Maria Theresa, the discreet and virtuous daughter of Philip IV. of Spain, to whom Louis was married shortly before the death of Mazarin, but a haughty and imperious beauty, who owed her ascendency to her physical charms and her ready wit —the Marchioness de Montespan. She, however, was not the first of those erring women whom the passions of the King had elevated, for a time, above the old nobility of the realm. His youthful object of attachment was Mary de Mancini, the niece of Cardinal Mazarin, and she was supplanted by the Duchess de la Vallière, who was incapable of preserving the conquest she had made, and who, disconsolate and repentant, expiated, in the severities of a Carmelite convent, for thirty-six dreary years, the folly of having trusted to the honor of the King, whom she adored.

Madame de Montespan.

Madame de Montespan was, doubtless, the most brilliant of those women who, for a time, enjoyed ascendency at the court they scandalized and adorned. Her tastes were expensive, and her habits were extravagant and luxurious. On her the Sovereign showered diamonds and rubies. He could refuse her nothing. She received so much from him, that she could afford to endow a convent—the mere building of which cost one million eight hundred thousand livres. Her children were legitimatized, and declared princes of the blood. Through her the royal favors flowed. Ambassadors, ministers, and even prelates, paid their court to her. On her the reproofs of Bossuet fell without effect. Secure in her ascendency over the mind of Louis, she triumphed over his Court, and insulted the nation. But at last he grew weary of her, although she remained at Court eighteen years, and she was dismissed from Versailles on a pension of fifteen millions of livres a year. She lived twenty-two years after her exile from Court, in great splendor, sometimes hoping to regain the ascendency

Her extravagance and pride.

she had once enjoyed, and at other times enduring those rigorous penances which her church inflicts as an expiation for sin. To the last, however, she was haughty and imperious, and kept up the vain etiquette of a Court. Her husband, whom she had abandoned, and to whom, after her disgrace, she sought to be reconciled, never would allow her name to be mentioned; and the King, whom for nearly twenty years she had enthralled, heard of her death with indifference, as he was starting for a hunting excursion. "Ah, indeed," said Louis XIV., "so the marchioness is dead! I should have thought that she would have lasted longer. Are you ready, M. de la Rochefoucauld? I have no doubt that, after this last shower, the scent will lie well for the dogs. Let us be off at once."

Her Death.

As the Marchioness de Montespan lost her power over the royal egotist, Madame de Maintenon gained hers. She was the wife of the poet Scarron, and was first known to the King as the governess of the children of Montespan. She was, on the whole, an estimable and intellectual woman, but artful and ambitious. No person ever had so great an influence over Louis as she; and hers was the ascendency of a strong mind over a weak one. She endeavored to make peace at Court, and to dissuade the King from those vices to which he had so long been addicted. As the King could not live without her, and as she refused to follow the footsteps of her predecessors, in the year 1685 he made her his wife. She was worthy of his choice; the severest scrutiny of foes has never been able to detect in her life a single act inconsistent with virtue and honor. Her greatest defect was the narrowness of her religious prejudices, under the influence of which she befriended the Jesuits and incited the King to religious persecutions.

Madame de Maintenon.

Her character.

But Louis XIV. was far from needing any incentive to repress the spirit of intellectual independence. He could not bear any dissent from opinions which he either advanced or endorsed. He disliked the Jansenists as cordially as he did

Ch. 15 the Huguenots. He honored those only who perpetually bowed before him.

A. D. 1685 to 1715.

Hence, the really great men who surrounded him did but little, in spite of their genius, for the elevation of the French mind. They were illustrious for the light they shed around the throne, rather than for the impulse they gave to civilization. Turenne and Condé, who commanded his armies; Colbert and Louvois, who directed his councils; Bossuet and Fléchier, who taught his children; Bourdaloue and Massillon, who reminded him of his duties; La Chaise and Le Tellier, who controlled his conscience; Racine, Molière, Corneille, and Boileau, who enlightened his mind; Molé and D'Aguessau, who presided in his courts; Vauban, who fortified his citadels; Riquet, who dug his canals; Mansard, who constructed his palaces; Poussin, who decorated his chambers; and Le Notre, who laid out his gardens, lived but to emblazon his fame and centralize his power.

Great men around the throne.

All who thought of elevating France, rather than its monarch, were banished from the realm. The devout Jansenists, whose ranks Pascal, Le Martin, and De Lacy, had adorned, in the Vale of Port Royal; the long suffering Huguenots, who claimed, in more obscure retreats, the liberty of worshipping God according to their consciences; and even the Quietists, whom Fenélon had patronised, were alike doomed to persecution.

Nor was there ever a period since the Reformation when the writings of great men in France were so little marked by independence of character. Neither Pascal, with his intense hostility to spiritual despotism; nor Racine, with his appreciation of the free spirit of ancient Greece; nor Fenélon, with his patriotic enthusiasm and clear perception of the moral strength of empires, ventured to give full scope to their sentiments, or produced, in a political point of view, anything worthy of their genius. The remorseless egotism of Louis XIV. was fatal to all men who were not ready to be either martyrs or slaves. He sought to concentrate around his throne all the

Their genius repressed.

talents of the realm; but grants and pensions had only the effect of destroying independence of mind and manly vigor, so that at the close of the 17th century all the great lights which had arisen from the troubles of the League, or the Fronde, had disappeared. Ch. 15 A. D. 1685 to 1715.

And the same egotism, which made him jealous of intellectual independence, induced him also to degrade his nobility, by the paltry offices and wearisome ceremonies which he established in his palace. Great nobles undressed him when he went to bed, and others dressed him in the morning. One handed him his shirt, another put on his stockings, and a third brought him his embroidered vest. When he sat down, nobles stood behind his chair; they surrounded his chariot when he took a drive; they waited at his table when he drank his wine. Delicate ladies were doomed to the most fatiguing duties in their attendance on his wife and children. His vast palace was crowded, to the attics, with titled servants, who prepared and witnessed the constant fêtes, balls, and banquets, which were the unfailing amusements of the Court, even in times of the deepest public distress. Degradation of the nobles.

But it was religious persecutions which marked the internal condition of France, during the reign of Louis XIV., more than any other event, and to this we must now direct our notice.

The first persecution was directed against the Jansenists, the most fervent pietists of the age, as well as the greatest scholars. Their austere doctrines, their severe morality, and their lofty spirit of enthusiasm, were odious to the Jesuits, and to the King, who was under their influence. Perhaps their intellectual independence annoyed him more than their principles of belief; for, though Catholics, their spirit was Protestant. The Jansenists.

In consequence of the intrigues of their enemies, the Pope was induced to condemn five propositions, which the Jesuists pretended to extract from the writings of Jansen, who had been Professor of Divinity at the University of Louvain. His followers, the Port Royalists, declared that the propositions The five propositions.

Ch. 15 were not to be found in the writings in question, but the Pope took the side of the Jesuits, and condemned them in a special Bull. Now the Jansenists did not deny the authority of the Pope in matters of faith, but only in matters of fact. And the point at issue was, the fact whether the propositions were in the books or not. Here they quibbled, and a controversy commenced, in which, instead of assuming bold ground, they largely resorted to scholastic ingenuities. Bossuet, the most eloquent ecclesiastic that the French church ever produced, and certainly the ablest controversialist, entered the lists against them, for he did not like their speculations on liberty and grace, and, by mere weight of authority, he soon crushed his opponents. They were now threatened with excommunication, and the anger of the King; but they remained immovable. At last, by royal command, a body of soldiers entered their venerable retreat, made sacred by the prayers and studies of so many saints, and the seventy-one persons, who composed the inmates, were turned out of doors, and their abbey was levelled with the ground.

A. D. 1685 to 1715.

Suppression of the Jansenists.

The Quietists.

Soon after this, the Quietists, a small body of religious enthusiasts, at the head of whom was Madame Guyon, were imprisoned, and subjected to various annoyances, involving at length the disgrace of Fenélon himself, who protected them.

But these instances of persecution were of small moment, compared with the systematic attempt which was now made to root out Protestantism from France.

Edicts against Protestantism.

As early as 1666, the attention of the King was directed towards the Protestants with hostile intentions, and a decree was passed which forbad them to receive money from the State for the support of their ministers. Another followed, which at once denied them legal rights at home, and prohibited them from dwelling in foreign countries. Successive edicts decreed the demolition of their churches, and forbad the preaching of their ministers. They were forbidden to meet in any assemblies of more than twelve people; and in the year 1670, their schoolmasters were required to abstain

from teaching their pupils anything except to read, write, and cypher. Ch. 15

A. D. 1685 to 1715.

Protestant colleges were now gradually closed, and all means of high intellectual improvement were interdicted. Measures were then taken to degrade Protestants in social rank, and to deprive them of their civil privileges. If they held places at Court, they were required to sell them; if they were advocates, they were forbidden to plead; if they were physicians, they were prevented from visiting patients. They were excluded from appointments in the army, and in the various offices of the civil service. Nothing remained for them but commerce and manufactures; and, even in these avocations, they could not hold Catholics in dependence, nor enter as servants into Catholic houses. If a Protestant went to law, he could obtain no redress; if ill, he was molested by Catholic priests; if he had children, they were entrapped from his protection. And all these legal iniquities were aggravated by cruelties inflicted by lawless soldiers, or by private foes, who were sure of protection whatever insults or injuries they might inflict. They were, in short, subjected to humiliations only equalled by those which were inflicted on the Jews in the middle ages.

Cruel persecutions.

In order to compel them to abandon their religion, more direct and cruel means were resorted to, and large bodies of troops were unnecessarily quartered upon them. Their taxes were multiplied, and their houses were pillaged. If, in their despair, they sought to fly from their homes and country, as the Puritans did, they were made to feel that even voluntary exile was prohibited, and punished with the utmost severity. They found no defenders and no redress.

Flight forbidden.

They framed petition after petition, but were entirely disregarded. New regiments of dragoons were sent among them, and these "Dragonades," as they were called, resulted in unparalleled barbarities. Many fled, leaving their property behind them. They filled the prisons; and they dyed the scaffold with their blood. Finally, in 1685, the edict of Nantes itself,—the great charter which Henry IV. had granted,

The Dragonades.

Ch. 15 was repealed, and every remnant of religious liberty was taken away.

A. D. 1685 to 1715.

To this last act of treachery and injustice, the King was prompted by the Jesuits, and the bigots who surrounded him. The Chancellor, Le Tellier, at the age of eighty-three, perceiving that death was approaching, besought the King for the privilege of signing, before he died, the edict which should outlaw the best people in the realm; and having obtained the request, he died, exclaiming, in the words of Simeon, "Lord, now lettest thou thy servant depart in peace; for mine eyes have seen thy salvation."

Revocation of the edict.

The revocation of this edict ensured the demolition of all the churches of the Protestants; prohibited, under the severest penalties, the exercise of their religion; exiled their ministers who would not abjure their faith; shut up all their schools; caused their children to be rebaptized by Catholic priests; confiscated the property of refugees; and punished all attempts to flee the country with the galleys.

But no act of persecution was ever more impolitic. In accordance with the same great law of retribution which visited the kingdom with untold calamities, from the wars of Louis and the vice and extravagance of the Court, this persecution decimated the land, sowed the seeds of intense hostility to the Government, and served to enrich foreign nations with the industry and talent of France. A great number of Protestant gentlemen passed into the service of other European states, and formed entire regiments of bitter foes. Their sailors entered the navies of England and Holland. Four hundred thousand contrived to escape from the country, carrying with them their arts and manufactures, which had been the sources of its wealth. As many more had fallen in battle, or perished in prison, in the galleys, or in the forests to which they had fled. One million remained, hostile to the faith they were compelled to embrace, and waiting only for an opportunity to rebel.

Its consequences.

Thus it was that all the enterprises and aims of Louis XIV.

resulted only in the impoverishment of his country. Never did a monarch enter upon life with more magnificent prospects, and more splendid means of being a benefactor to his people. His power had been cemented by the energy of Richelieu; his treasures had been multiplied by the management of Mazarin; external enemies had been subdued by Condé and Turenne, and all private opposition had been rendered hopeless. Factious nobles had become obsequious courtiers, and Huguenotic leaders had submitted to the ascendency of the established church. Great statesmen had suggested the means of public prosperity, and unreserved loyalty urged a united nation to unlimited obedience. Yet all these splendid opportunities were thrown away, and nothing but disaster and humiliation succeeded to wars, palace building, and persecutions.

Early prosperity.

Then was Louis made to realize, with impressive force, not merely the hollowness of fame and homage, but the natural retribution which so generally follows either mistake or crime. He invaded Holland, and Holland gave him no rest until he was completely humbled. He destroyed the cities of the Palatinate, and the Rhine provinces became a wall of fire against his armies. He bombarded Genoa and Tripoli, to make an experiment of his power, and the English learned the secrets of his art only to burn down his own maritime cities. He sent the greatest generals of former wars to prostrate unoffending nations, and their defenders turned against them their own weapons of victory. He conspired against liberty in England, and it was from England that he experienced the most fatal opposition. He humiliated the Pope, and the Pope sided with his enemies. History records no more bitter disappointments and reverses than that which this proud monarch was compelled to suffer, when his great name lost its potent charm and his power was broken.

Disasters of later days.

His latter years were melancholy in the extreme. No man ever drank deeper of the bitter cup of disappointed ambition and alienated affections. No man ever more fully realized

Deep sorrow.

Ch. 15 the vanity of this world. None of the courtiers, by whom he was surrounded, could he trust, and all his experiences led to a disbelief in human virtue. He saw, with shame, that his palaces, his wars, and his pleasures, had consumed the resources of the nation, and had sowed the seeds of a fearful revolution.

A. D. 1715.

His love of pomp survived other weaknesses, but the pageantry of Versailles was a poor antidote to the sorrows which bowed his head to the ground, except on those great public occasions when pride triumphed over grief. Every day, in his last years, something occurred to wound his vanity, and to alienate him from all the world but Madame de Maintenon, the only being whom he fully trusted, and who did not deceive him. The humiliated monarch had now become an object of pity as well as of reproach, and his death, which occurred in the year 1715, was a relief to himself, as well as to his family.

His death.

REFERENCES.—Sismondi's "History" is perhaps the best on the whole, but the student may also consult, with advantage, Memoires de Madame de Motéville, Abbé de Choisy, Madame de Maintenon, and de la Rochefoucauld; also "Louis XIV. et son Siècle;" "Histoire de l'Edit de Nantz;" "Journal de Daugeau;" and "Histoire de Port Royal."

CHAPTER XVI.

WARS IN EUROPE AGAINST LOUIS XIV., TO PRESERVE THE BALANCE OF POWER.

Ch. 16

A. D. 1665 to 1713.

THE most striking feature in the political history of Europe during the 17th century was, a struggle to maintain the balance of power. This was the real cause of the various wars against the House of Austria, which took place after the Reformation, as well as of those which were waged at a later date against Louis XIV. These wars were neither fruitful in examples of romantic heroism, nor marked by fanatical excesses. But they produced great political combinations, developed unknown national resources, led to great improvements in military science, and gave immortal fame to a new class of military heroes.

Idea of a balance of power.

The idea of a balance of power probably originated with Francis I., when he sought to suppress the overgrown ascendency of the Emperor Charles V.; but it was more distinctly developed by Henry IV., and by Cardinal Richelieu, when they aimed to humiliate the power of Austria. Gustavus Adolphus had this object also in view when he engaged in his great conflict with Austria, to secure the religious liberties of Protestants. It need not be added, that since the Papacy has ceased to be the great central power of Christendom, the European nations have attached great political importance to the maintenance of this salutary check, and have seldom failed to embark in war when any monarch has endangered the general interest, by encroaching upon established boundaries. It was on this principle that Europe at a later time armed itself against Napoleon, as it had formerly done

Ch. 16 against Louis XIV., and still earlier against Austria. The present war against Russia is based on the same principle,—

A. D. 1665. that of crippling a potentate whose ascendency is dangerous, or who aims recklessly at self aggrandisement.

The great series of European wars against the Austrian Emperors, whose power was probably exaggerated, was brought to a close by the Treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, which is the foundation of all modern treaties, and by which the various limits of the European States were definitely fixed.

Military ambition of Louis. As soon, however, as Louis XIV. began to enjoy the consciousness of absolute authority, he became inflated with a passion for military glory, which quickly led to disturbance in the relations of Europe. Seventeen years had passed away since the peace of Westphalia, during which the industrial resources of the kingdom had been rapidly developed. With an overflowing treasury, and ample means of war, he resolved upon the conquest of Flanders, a Province which then belonged to the Spanish Monarchy.

The pretence on which he founded this aggression was an untenable claim to the Flemish territories, based on an obsolete law of Brabant (1549), by which property passed to children on the death of either of their parents,—a law which had reference only to private individuals in the Low Countries, and was intended to discourage second marriages. Now it had happened that the wife of Louis XIV., Marie Therese,

Pretext for war. was the daughter and only child of Philip IV. of Spain, by his first marriage; although, by his second marriage with Marie Anne of Austria, he left a son, Charles, who was, according to the Spanish laws, and the general principles of inheritance, sole heir to all the territories of the Spanish Monarchy. Pretending that his wife was heir to the Flemish territories by the above-mentioned law, Louis resolved to wrest them from the King of Spain.

Unfortunately, Flanders was at this time deprived of allies. Her nearest neighbour, Holland, was in close alliance with the French King, and even embroiled in a miserable commercial

war with England. Holland was then ruled by the Pensionary De Witt, who had an enthusiastic admiration for Louis XIV. The Low Countries, abandoned to their fate, were consequently easily overrun by overwhelming armies. Such cities as Charleroi, Tournay, Courtrai, Douai, and Lille, were able to make but a feeble resistance. The Spaniards had scarcely eight thousand men to oppose to three large armies, composing altogether sixty thousand men, and commanded by such generals as Turenne, D'Aumont, and Créqui. But even these did not succeed in taking Brussels and Antwerp. The courtiers and flatterers of the French King affected, however, to regard the conquest as one of unprecedented brilliancy, and Louis quitted the camp to receive the adulations of his mistresses, and to superintend fêtes in honor of his victories. The only brilliant achievement of the war was an expedition of the Prince of Condé, in Franche Compté, part of the old province of Burgundy, on the confines of Switzerland, which was overrun in fourteen days.

Situation of the contending parties.

The hero of the conquest, if such it may be designated, was the great Condé, so called from the successes of his early life. He was first Prince of the blood, and, when only twenty-two years of age, had been entrusted with an army by Cardinal Mazarin, who perceived his great abilities. But his character did not inspire so much respect as his genius. He joined the party of the Fronde, in order to acquire a dangerous ascendency in the government; and, when foiled in his efforts, he became a traitor to his country, and fought under the banners of Spain. He was proud, passionate, and rapacious. He lived at Chantilly, in almost regal splendor, disliked by the King, who was at the same time unwilling to dispense with his services. The minister Louvois favored him, from jealousy of Turenne, whom he wished to humiliate.

The Prince of Condé.

The rapid conquest of Flanders, so unexpected and unjustifiable, awakened the fears, and excited the indignation of Europe, and led to a general league against Louis XIV., at the head of which was William, Prince of Orange. Though

Results of the conquest.

Ch. 16 young, he at once penetrated the motives of the French King, and resolved to arrest his course. His chief difficulty was in undeceiving De Witt, who, though a great patriot, was utterly blind to the intentions of Louis XIV. At last, an obvious political necessity overpowered private friendships, and both Holland and England entered the league. So powerful was the confederacy, that Louis deemed it wise to yield, and the peace of Aix la Chapelle was concluded in 1668.

A. D. 1668 to 1672.

League against Louis XIV.

This peace was, however, only a truce. Louis had but stifled his resentments, in order to prepare for more vigorous war. His anger now was excited against Holland,—a State he had supposed favorable to his views. But Holland had now discerned that her true policy was to unite with England, both as a Protestant State, and as a main bulwark of liberty in Europe. Louis, from a feeling of revenge, as well as of ambition, now aimed to unite Holland to the throne of France.

His renewed preparations.

He dissembled his schemes for four years, and succeeded in deceiving everybody, except William of Orange, who had lately been appointed Captain General of the Dutch republic. Unfortunately, the United Provinces were at this time divided by political animosities, and did not discern their danger. Their peril was, however, imminent. Charles II. of England had been seduced from their alliance by French gold. The German princes wished to remain neutral, after having experienced so many disasters from the thirty years war. The storm, therefore, gathered upon Holland alone, which contained only three millions of inhabitants, and which now seemed destined to destruction.

Attack on Holland.

It burst out in awful fury in the spring of 1672. The French forces numbered nearly two hundred thousand men, commanded by Condé, Turenne, Créqui, Vauban, and Luxembourg, and were stimulated to enthusiasm by the presence of the Monarch himself. To these armies Holland could oppose but twenty-five thousand inexperienced soldiers, commanded by a young man only twenty-two years of age. Louis, consequently, without opposition, easily made his boasted pas-

sage of the Rhine, and took Arnheim, Nimeguen, Utrecht, Naerden, and numerous other towns. The conqueror dictated the most cruel and unreasonable terms. When the Dutch embassy, headed by Grotius, came to his camp to solicit peace, and prepared to make any concession consistent with honor (for the people were driven to extremities,—Amsterdam, and a few other cities being all that remained to the Dutch authorities), the haughty Monarch demanded the unconditional surrender of every city and fortress in the land, the restoration of the Roman Catholic religion, and a tribute of twenty millions of livres for the expenses of the war. The Dutch, although in despair, refused his proposals, and resolved, under the advice of William, to defend their country to their very last ditch.

Ch. 16 A. D. 1672.

Embarrassments of the Dutch.

Whatever is truly heroic in the history of the 17th century, when viewed in connection with the wars of Louis XIV., now rises on the canvas. Never was a country compelled to make greater sacrifices than Holland, at this time. Never were sacrifices more willingly made. The Dutch now fought, not for victory or for fame, but for national existence. The dikes were opened, and their villages were overflowed; everything dear to them on earth was risked in order to repel the invaders.

Their heroism.

But Providence came to their rescue. A great storm destroyed or scattered the ships of the enemy, so that the sea remained open in case they were driven from the land. In view of such an emergency, fifty thousand families had prepared to embark for their colonies in the East Indies, where they had determined to establish a new empire. The inundation of the fields prevented the advance of the French troops; while the vast number of prisoners required nearly a third of the army to guard them. The invading forces were still further reduced by the large garrisons needed for the captured cities; so that when autumn approached, the country, contrary to all expectations, was still unconquered. Moreover, before reinforcements could arrive, or a new campaign commence, the Dutch had found powerful allies. A fresh league was formed against Louis; he was compelled to withdraw part of his

Disasters of the French.

A second league formed.

Ch. 16 forces in Holland to resist the Germans in Alsace; he was obliged to face new enemies on the Rhine; and at last he had to evacuate the provinces he had overrun, leaving behind him nothing but the deepest and most intense detestation.

A. D. 1675.

Assassination of the De Witts.

The Pensionary De Witt, and his brother, having fallen victims to popular fury, William of Orange was now placed at the head of the Government as well as of the army. He immediately became the life and soul of the combination formed against the man who had disturbed the peace of Europe. If all his circumstances could be fully appreciated, he would at once be recognised as belonging to the first class of military leaders. Although doomed to defeats and disasters, since he fought against vastly superior numbers, he always kept his ground. At the terrible battle of Seneff, which terminated the military career of the Prince of Condé, twenty-five thousand men were left dead upon the field.

Conquests of Turenne.

In the third year of the war the eyes of Europe were diverted from the Prince of Orange, by the memorable campaign of Marshal Turenne in the Rhine provinces, when, with inferior forces, he expelled the Austrians from Alsace, under the Duke of Lorraine. In the following spring, that of 1675, he was arrayed against the celebrated Austrian general Montecuculi, and was preparing for a general action, when he was killed by a random shot, to the great grief of the army, and the vexation of his Sovereign. All France was thrown into mourning by the death of this great general, at once the idol of the army, and the pride of the people.

His death and character.

Turenne was distinguished for his private virtues as well as for his public services. His family, like that of Condé, had been Protestant, but, like Condé and Henry IV., he abjured his religion, from motives of expediency. His life, in other respects, was unsullied by great defects, if we are willing to forget his devastation of the Palatinate. But cruelties in war were little thought of in that age. Perhaps too they were inflicted by his Government, in which case Louvois, rather than Turenne, is to be condemned for them. The eloquent

Fléchier pronounced the funeral oration of the hero, and his remains, by royal order, were consigned to the vaults of St. Denis, the resting place of the Kings of France. The monument which commemorates his greatness is now placed in the chapel of the Invalides, close to the tomb of Napoleon.

Peace of Nimeguen.

This great contest, of which William of Orange and Turenne were the opposing leaders, was brought to a close by the peace of Nimeguen, in 1678, after all parties were exhausted, and the objects aimed at by the aggressors were seen to be unattainable. By this peace the limits of the contending nations were re-established upon the basis of the treaty of Westphalia, made thirty years before, and all conquests mutually restored. Holland, by her heroic defence, had presented a barrier against the aggressions of a dangerous power, and had probably saved the liberties of Germany.

General hostilities renewed.

But Europe enjoyed only a brief respite after the peace of Nimeguen. The hostility of the nations against Louis XIV. still continued with unabated rancor,—an hostility which he had himself provoked by his intolerance and pride. William of Orange was now, in consequence of the revolution which had hurled James II. from the throne, King of England, and as such, burning to avenge the wrongs he had endured. The protection which Louis extended to the dethroned monarch furnished the pretext for a new combination, which was encouraged by the Pope, and the various Italian States, in consequence of the indignities Louis had offered to them. More than half a million of Protestants, flying from France, in consequence of the revocation of the edict of Nantes, swelled the number of his enemies, until at length all Europe armed itself anew, and formed a league more powerful than any that had been seen since the days of the Crusades.

Third combination.

It would be more difficult to find excuses for this war than for the one which preceded it, since it was undertaken rather from revenge than from fear or necessity. Louis XIV. certainly did not court the contest; he probably did all he could to avoid it. His experiences had somewhat dispelled the

Ch. 16 illusions of his early days, and he had now learnt the vanity of military glory. He had nothing to gain, and much to lose by the renewal of the war, which would necessarily subject him to enormous sacrifices. It is said that his minister Louvois intrigued with his enemies in order to plunge his master into new hostilities, hoping that war would divert his mind from palace building. Be that as it may, Louis was not the man to shrink from an enemy, when conflict became inevitable. He was too proud to make a concession, or to abandon a claim.

A. D. 1688.

Calamities of war.

For a period of nine years Europe was a scene of rapine, conflagration, cruelty, and bloodshed, beyond all former precedent. Calamities of the most heart-rending character marked the course of political events. The renewed desolation of the Palatinate, the capture of Philipsburg and Namur, the burning of Heidelberg, Manheim, Worms, Spires, and Oppenheim, the sack of Tréves and Cologne, and the battles of Fleurus, Nurwinden, Steinkerque, and Marseilles—bloody, without being decisive, and attended with needless cruelties, followed each other in sad succession. Between three and four hundred thousand combatants on either side were arrayed against each other, and in a single province on the Rhine four hundred thousand persons were compelled to flee from their homes, many of whom perished miserably from famine and disease. The calamities of war were aggravated by grievous famines. The ordinary streams of industry and prosperity were dried up. The King, in his embarrassment, was obliged to melt even the medallions which ornamented his palace at Versailles, and which commemorated his former victories. One after another of his generals died. The financial skill of his ministers was at length exhausted, and they surrendered their places in despair. Vainly did the King make overtures of peace, and offer to surrender to them his former conquests. The allies were deaf to his overtures, and bent on his complete ruin.

Embarrassment of the French.

The afflicted monarch was now compelled to appeal to the *Patriotism* of his subjects, as his last resource. The call was

at once responded to. Then were the allies in their turn made to perceive the truth that a nation fully aroused to a sense of its danger, and willing to make needful sacrifices, cannot be subdued. The ruin of Louis XIV. was averted, and, in 1697, the treaty of Ryswick was made, in accordance with which the relations of the contending States were restored to nearly the same position as before the war—the usual result of international conflicts. The Rhine still remained the boundary between France and Germany. Louis XIV. acknowledged William III. as King of England.

Peace of Ryswick.

While, however, Louis preserved his territories and his honor, he suffered deeply and permanently from this last desperate conflict. The peace of Ryswick found him broken, old, and disappointed, the object of execration to his enemies, and dislike to his own subjects, who had been so severely taxed and cruelly decimated to advance his interests. The enthusiasm which had greeted his early victories had vanished away. Gloom and despondency affected all classes of the people. The great marshals, to whose genius he had been so much indebted, were dead, and had left no successors worthy of their fame. Isolated, in the midst of courtiers, with no friend except his wife; conscious of having inflicted irreparable evils on his country, he must have felt, most painfully, the contrast between his situation now and that which it had been twenty years before, when his flatterers styled him "The Great"—a title to which no powerful monarch ever had a more questionable claim.

Humiliation of Louis XIV

But Louis XIV. was doomed to engage in a still more disastrous war than any to which allusion has yet been made. The death of Charles II. of Spain, the last of the Austrian princes, which took place in 1700, led to new difficulties. He had left no children, but bequeathed his throne to a grandson of the French King, by his wife Maria Theresa, eldest daughter of Philip IV., his nearest heir. The Emperor Leopold of Germany laid claim to this throne as grandson of the second daughter of Philip IV.; and the Elector of Bavaria,

War of the Spanish succession.

Ch. 16 the grandson of a third daughter, was another competitor. Of these various claims, that of Louis XIV. was doubtless the highest, both because his grandson was the nearest heir, and because the late King of Spain had bequeathed to him his crown. But Europe beheld with new solicitude the union of France and Spain under a Bourbon dynasty, and determined to prevent, if possible, so great an accession of power by that family. Louis knew too well the consequence of his acceptance of the crown, and therefore hesitated for a long time. He was compelled to choose between another disastrous war, and the humiliating renunciation of a great inheritance. Family ambition, unfortunately, triumphed over policy and patriotism. It was expecting too much of Louis XIV. to demand the surrender of the right of his grandson. But William and Leopold would hear of nothing less; and war, therefore, recommenced with a ferocity unknown even to that warlike age.

A. D. 1700 to 1713.

Position of Louis.

Death of William III.

Hostilities had scarcely commenced, when William III. of England died, leaving his throne to the Princess Anne, and recommending to her patronage a general destined to eclipse himself in military fame. Marlborough was entrusted with great powers, and soon proved, by his successes, the discernment of his patron. Louis had no general capable of withstanding him. The reverses of the French were rapid and great. France had taught her enemies the art of war, for both Marlborough and Eugene had studied under Condè and Turenne. Villeroi and Villars, Boufflers and Catinat, were successively defeated by foes they had been trained to despise; and, in a short time, Louis was completely stripped of all his early conquests. The storm of hatred and revenge, which had been gathering for forty years as a consequence of the invasion of Holland, and the devastation of the Palatinate, now burst with relentless fury on his devoted head. His calamities were consummated by the all but total annihilation of his armies on the banks of the Danube. At Blenheim was fought a battle as decisive as that of Cannae or Lutzen, and

Reverses of Louis XIV.

there Marlborough won trophies to which the whole English nation still point with pride. From that bloody day to the French revolution the English, in their turn, despised the military genius of France; for, until the sun of victory rose upon the eagles of Napoleon, the descendants of Louis XIV. experienced nothing but humiliation and defeat. Ch.16 A. D. 1713.

The battle of Blenheim, however, did not close the war. Hostilities continued several years longer, apparently for no other end than to gratify the ambition of selfish generals and unprincipled statesmen. It was not until 1713 that the treaty of Utrecht gave peace to desolated and mourning Europe. With the return of peace the career of Louis XIV. draws to a close. He survived but two years longer, outliving, however, as we have already said, his fame, his family, his friends, and his hopes. Peace of Utrecht.

REFERENCES.—Siècle de Louis XIV. (Voltaire); "Histoire de Turenne;" "Memoires de St. Simon," Catinat, Vauban, Berwick, Noailles, et Villars; "Memoires Secrets, par Duclos;" "Lettres et Negotiations de la Paiz de Nimeguen;" Basnage's "Annales des Provinces Unies;" Sismondi and Martin "Histoires de France."

CHAPTER XVII.

REIGNS OF WILLIAM III. AND ANNE.

Ch. 17 A. D. 1689. We have already considered the revolution by which William III. became King of England. On the 12th day of February, 1689, he arrived at Whitehall, and, on the 11th of April, he and Mary were crowned in Westminster Abbey.

Scarcely was he seated on the throne, when a rebellion in Ireland broke out, and demanded his presence in that distracted and unfortunate country.

The Irish people, being Roman Catholics, had sympathized with James II., in consequence of which he began shortly after his establishment at St. Germains to intrigue with the disaffected Irish chieftains. The most noted of these was Tyrconnel, who contrived to deprive the Protestants of Lord Mountjoy, their trusted and able leader, by sending him on a mission to James II., through whose influence he was confined, on his arrival at Paris, in the Bastile. Tyrconnel then proceeded to disarm the Protestants, and to recruit the Catholic army, which was raised in two months to a force of forty thousand men. James II. was invited by this army to take possession of his throne. He accepted the invitation, and, early in 1689, made a triumphal entry into Dublin.

Rebellion in favor of James.

The Irish Parliament, which was in the interest of James, then passed an act of attainder against all Protestants who had assisted William, among whom were two archbishops, one duke, seventeen earls, eighteen barons, and eighty-three clergymen. By another act, Ireland was made independent of England. The Protestants were everywhere despoiled and insulted.

But James was unequal to the task he had assumed, and incapable either of preserving Ireland or retaking England. He was irresolute and undecided. He could not manage an Irish House of Commons any better than an English one. He debased the coin, and resorted to irritating measures to raise money. At last he concluded to subdue the Protestants in Ulster, and advanced to lay siege to Londonderry, upon which depended the fate of the North of Ireland. It was bravely defended by the inhabitants, and finally relieved by troops sent over from England. Nine thousand people, however, miserably perished by famine and disease before the siege was raised.

Siege of Londonderry.

Ulster was now safe, and the discomfiture of James was rapidly effected. Old Marshal Schomberg was sent into Ireland with sixteen thousand veterans, and shortly after (June 14, 1690) William himself landed at Carrickfergus, near Belfast, with additional troops, which swelled the Protestant army to forty thousand. The contending forces advanced to the conflict, and on the 1st of July the battle of the Boyne was fought, in which Schomberg was killed, but which resulted in the defeat of James. The discomfited King fled to Dublin, but quitted it as soon as he had entered it, and embarked hastily at Waterford for France, leaving the Earl of Tyrconnel to contend with vastly superior forces, and to make the best terms in his power.

Battle of the Boyne.

The country was speedily subdued, and punishment inflicted. Not less than four thousand persons were outlawed, and their possessions confiscated. Indeed, at different times this fate may be said to have overtaken the whole country. In the reign of James I. the entire province of Ulster, containing three millions of acres, was divided among new inhabitants. At the restoration, eight millions of acres were confiscated, and after the surrender of Limerick, one million more.

Subjugation of Ireland.

The reign of William III., as we have already seen, was far from peaceful. It was also disturbed by domestic embarrass-

Ch. 17 ments, arising from jealousies between Whigs and Tories; from the intrigues of statesmen with the exiled family; and from discussions in Parliament in reference to those great questions which attended the settlement of the Constitution. Among other Bills one was passed, called the *Place Bill*, excluding all officers of the crown from the House of Commons; another, called the *Triennial Bill*, limited the duration of Parliament to three years; and a third, still more important, regulated trials in case of treason, by which the prisoner was to be furnished with a copy of the indictment, with the names and residences of jurors, with the privilege of peremptory challenge, and with full defence of counsel.

A. D. 1690 to 1702.

Important Bills passed.

Liberty of the press.

The great question of the Liberty of the Press was also discussed at this time—one of the most vital, as affecting the stability of Government on the one side, and the liberties of the people on the other. So desirable have all Governments deemed the control of the press, that Parliament, when it abolished the Star Chamber, in the reign of Charles I., still retained the power of licensing books. Various modifications, however, were from time to time made in these laws, until, in the reign of William, the liberty of the press was established nearly upon its present basis.

Foresight of William

William was also favorable to measures which, though not practicable in his day, the wisdom of a subsequent age saw fit to adopt. Among these was the union of England and Scotland, which he strongly recommended. Under his auspices the affairs of the East India Company were considered and new charters granted; the Bank of England was erected; benevolent action for the suppression of vice, and for the amelioration of the condition of the poor, took place; the coinage was adjusted; and important financial experiments were made.

The Crown, on the whole, lost power during this reign, which was transferred to the House of Commons. The Commons acquired the complete control of the purse, which is considered paramount to all other authority. Prior to the Revolution,

the supply for the public service was placed at the disposal of the sovereign; but after that event the definite sum of seven hundred thousand pounds, yearly, was placed at the disposal of the Crown, to defray the expense of the civil list, while other expenses of Government, including those for the support of the army and navy, were annually appropriated by the Commons. Ch. 17 A. D. 1690 to 1702.

The most important legislative act of this reign was the Act of Settlement, passed March 12, 1701, which provided that England should be free from the obligation of engaging in any war for the defence of the foreign dominions of the King; that all succeeding monarchs should be of the communion of the Church of England; that they should not go out of the British dominions without consent of Parliament; that no pensioner, or person in office, should be a member of the Commons; that the religious liberties of the people should be secured; that the judges should hold office during good behaviour, and have fixed salaries; and that the succession to the throne should be confined to Protestant princes. This act supplied deficiencies in the former settlement, as it included some matters of great importance which had been omitted, and applied remedies for abuses which had sprung up, during the twelve years that had elapsed since the passing of the Bill of Rights. Final Act of Settlement.

William reigned thirteen years, with much ability, sagacity, and prudence. He died on the 8th of March, 1702, and was buried in the sepulchre of the Kings of England. Death of William.

Notwithstanding the animosity of different parties, public opinion now generally awards to him a high place among monarchs. He had many enemies and many defects. He was cold, reserved, and unyielding. He distrusted human nature, and disdained human sympathy. That he was, however, capable of friendship, is attested by his long and devoted attachment to Bentinck, whom he created Earl of Portland, and splendidly rewarded with rich and extensive manors. His reserve and coldness may in part be traced to his profound His character.

Ch. 17 knowledge of mankind, whom he feared to trust. But if he was not beloved by the nation, he secured their lasting respect by being the first to solve the problem of constitutional monarchy, and by successfully ruling, at a very critical period, the Dutch, the English, the Scotch, and the Irish, who had all separate interests and jealousies. He died serenely, but hiding from his attendants, as he did all his days, the deep impressions which agitated his earnest and heroic soul.

A. D. 1702.

Great men of the age.

Among the great men whom he encouraged and rewarded, may be mentioned the historian Burnet, whom he made Bishop of Salisbury, and Tillotson and Tennison, whom he elevated to archiepiscopal thrones. Dr. South and Dr. Bentley also adorned this age. Robert Boyle distinguished himself by experiments in natural science, and zeal for Christian knowledge; and Christopher Wren by his genius in architectural art. But the two great lights of the reign were, doubtless, Sir Isaac Newton and John Locke. The discoveries of Newton are almost without a parallel. To him the world is indebted for the binomial theorem, discovered at the age of twenty-two; for the invention of fluxions; for the demonstration of the law of gravitation; and for the discovery of the different refrangibility of rays of light; while his treatise on Optics, and his *Principia*, in which he brought to light the new theory of the universe, place him at the head of modern philosophers.

Accession of Anne, and events of her reign.

On the death of William, the Princess Anne, daughter of James II., peaceably ascended the throne. She was then thirty-seven years of age.

The memorable events connected with her reign of twelve years are, the war of the Spanish succession, in which Marlborough humbled the pride of Louis XIV.; the struggles of the Whigs and Tories; the union of Scotland with England; the discussion and settlement of great questions pertaining to the constitution, and to the security of the Protestant religion; and the impulse which literature received from the constellation of learned men who were patronized by the Government, and who filled an unusual place in public estimation.

In a political point of view, this reign is but the continuation of that of William, since the same objects were pursued, the same policy adopted, and the same great characters intrusted with power. The animating object of William's life was the suppression of the power of Louis XIV.; and this end was never lost sight of by the English Government under the reign of Anne.

It will ever remain an open question whether or not it was wise in the English nation to continue the struggle with Louis XIV. so long. In a financial and material point of view, the war proved disastrous. But it is difficult to measure the real greatness of a country, and its solid and enduring blessings, by any pecuniary standard. All such calculations, however statistically startling, are erroneous and deceptive. The real strength of nations consists in loyalty, patriotism, and public spirit; and no sacrifices can be too great to attain such blessings. If the victories of Marlborough secured these,—if they gave dignity to the British name, and an honorable and lofty self-respect to the English people, they were not dearly purchased.

Wars with Louis XIV.

As to the remarkable genius of the great general by whom those victories were gained, there can be no question. Marlborough, in spite of his many faults, his selfishness and parsimony, his ambition and duplicity, will always stand high in the catalogue of Fame. He never made any serious mistake; he never lost the soundness of his judgment. No success unduly elated him, and no reverses discouraged him. He never forgot the interests of the nation in his own personal annoyances or enmities. The glory of his country was the prevailing desire of his soul. His sagacity was only equalled by his prudence and patience; and these contributed, as well as his personal bravery, to those splendid successes, which secured for him such magnificent rewards.

Duke of Marlborough.

Scarcely less distinguished than he, was Lord Godolphin, the able prime minister of Anne, with whom Marlborough was united by family ties, by friendship, by official relations, and

Lord Godolphin.

Ch. 17 A. D. 1702 to 1714.

by interest. He was a Tory by profession, but a Whig in policy. He rose with Marlborough, and fell with him, being an unflinching advocate for the prosecution of the war to the utmost limits. His life was not stainless; but, in an age of corruption, he ably administered the treasury department, and had the control of unbounded wealth, without becoming rich. It was mainly through the co-operation of this sagacious and far-sighted statesman that Marlborough was enabled to prosecute his brilliant military career.

The Whigs and Tories.

During his administration, party animosity was at its height, and the great struggle which has been going on, in England, for nearly two hundred years, between the Whigs and Tories, raged with unusual fierceness. These names originated in the reign of Charles II., and were terms of reproach. The court party reproached their antagonists with their affinity to the fanatical conventiclers in Scotland, who were known by the name of the *Whigs;* and the country party pretended to find a resemblance between the courtiers and the popish banditti of Ireland, to whom the appellation of *Tory* was affixed. Charles and James sympathized with the Tories; but William III. was supported by the Whigs, who had the ascendency in his reign. Queen Anne was a Tory, as was to be expected from a princess of the house of Stuart; but, in the early part of her reign, she was obliged to yield to the supremacy of the Whigs.

Their principles.

The advocates of war were Whigs, and those who desired peace were Tories. The Whigs looked to the future glory of the country; the Tories, to the expenses which war created. The Tories, at last, got the ascendency, and expelled Godolphin, Marlborough, and Sunderland, from power.

Of the Tory leaders, Harley (Earl of Oxford), St. John (Lord Bolingbroke), the Duke of Buckingham, and the Duke of Ormond, the Earl of Rochester, and Lord Dartmouth, were the most prominent; but this Tory party was itself divided, in consequence of jealousies between the chiefs, the intrigues of Harley, and the measureless ambition of Bolingbroke. Under the ascendency of the Tories the treaty of

Utrecht was made, now generally condemned by historians of both Whig and Tory politics. It was disproportioned to the success of the war, although it secured the ends of the alliance. Ch. 17 A. D. 1702 to 1714.

One of the causes which led to the overthrow of the Whigs was the impeachment and trial of Dr. Henry Sacheverell, an event which excited intense interest at the time, and, though insignificant in itself, touched some vital principles of the constitution.

This divine, who was rector of St. Saviour's, Southwark, was a man of mean capacity, and of little reputation either for learning or virtue. He had been, during the reign of William, an outrageous Whig; but, finding his services disregarded, he became a violent Tory. The audacity of his railings against the late King and the revolution, at last attracted the notice of Government; and for two sermons, in which he inculcated, without measure, the doctrine of passive obedience, and repudiated religious toleration, he was in the year 1710 formally impeached. All England was excited by the trial. The Queen herself privately attended, to encourage a man who was persecuted for his loyalty. The first orators and lawyers of the day put forth all their energies on his behalf. Bishop Atterbury wrote the defence, which was endorsed by a conclave of High Church divines. The result of the trial was the condemnation of the doctor, but with it the fall of his adversaries. He was suspended for three years. The trial, while it brought out some great constitutional truths, also more effectually advanced the liberty of the press; it taught men the folly of attaching too much importance to the violence and vituperation of unprincipled libellers. Trial of Dr. Sacheverell.

The great event of this reign was unquestionably the union of Scotland and England, which took place May 1, 1707. Nothing could be more beneficial for both countries; and the only wonder is, that it was not accomplished long before. Union of England and Scotland.

It was agreed, by the act of Union, that the two kingdoms of England and Scotland should, henceforth, be united into one, under the name of *Great Britain;*

Ch. 17 A. D. 1702 to 1714.

That the succession to the United Kingdom should remain to the Princess Sophia, Duchess Dowager of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being Protestants; and that all Papists, and persons marrying Papists, should be excluded from, and be for ever incapable of inheriting, the crown of Great Britain;

That the whole people of Great Britain should be represented by one Parliament, in which sixteen peers and forty-five commoners, chosen for Scotland, should sit and vote;

Conditions of the Union.

That the subjects of the United Kingdom should enjoy an entire freedom and intercourse of trade and navigation, and reciprocal communication of all other rights, privileges, and advantages belonging to the subjects of their kingdom;

That the laws, in regard to public rights and civil government, should be the same in both countries, but that no alteration should be made in the laws respecting private rights, unless for the evident utility of subjects residing in Scotland;

That the Court of Session, and all other courts of judicature in Scotland, should remain as before the union, subject, however, to such regulations as may be made by the Parliament of Great Britain.

Beside these permanent regulations, a sum of three hundred and ninety-eight thousand pounds was granted to Scotland, as an equivalent to the augmentation of the customs and excise.

Effects of it.

By this treaty the Scotch became identified with the English in interest. If they lost in independence, they gained security and peace, and rapidly rose in wealth and consequence. The advantage was mutual.

Of the illustrious men who adorned the literature of England in this brilliant age, Addison, Swift, Bolingbroke, Bentley, Warburton, Arbuthnot, Gay, Pope, Tickell, Halifax, Parnell, Rowe, Prior, Congreve, Steel, and Berkeley, were the most distinguished. Dryden belonged to a preceding period.

Wits of Queen Anne's reign.

The wits of Queen Anne's reign were political writers as well as poets, and their services were sought for and paid by the great statesmen of the times. Of these, two only can here be noticed,—Addison and Swift. Addison was born in 1672.

He had distinguished himself at Oxford, and was a fellow of Magdalen College. His early verses attracted the notice of Dryden, then the great autocrat of letters, and the oracle of the literary clubs. At the age of twenty-seven, he was provided with a pension from the Whig Government, and set out on his travels. He was afterwards made secretary to Lord Halifax, and elected a member of the House of Commons, but was never able to make a speech. He however made up for his failure as an orator by his power as a writer. He was also charming in conversation, and his society was everywhere cultivated by statesmen and scholars. In 1708 he became secretary for Ireland, and, while in Dublin, wrote those delightful papers on which his fame chiefly rests.

Joseph Addison.

Next to Addison in fame, and superior in genius, was Swift, born in Ireland in 1677, educated at Dublin, and patronized by Sir William Temple. He was very useful to his party by his political writings. He was a great master of venomous satire, sparing neither friends nor enemies. He was ambitious, misanthropic, and selfish. His treatment of women was disgraceful and heartless in the extreme. But he was witty and learned. He was never known to laugh himself, yet he convulsed the circles into which he was thrown. His distinguishing power, however, was unscrupulous sarcasm.

Dean Swift.

With these brief notices we must conclude our remarks on this period. In 1714, soon after the conclusion of the treaty of Utrecht, the Queen died, and the Elector of Hanover ascended the throne, under the title of *George the First.* To his reign we shall devote a separate chapter.

Death of Anne.

REFERENCES.—Lord Mahon's "History of England," which commences with the peace of Utrecht, is one of the most useful and interesting works which have lately appeared; Smollett's continuation of Hume should be consulted; Hallam should be read in reference to all constitutional questions; Coxe's "Life of Marlborough" throws great light on the period, and is very valuable. See, also, Bolingbroke's "Letters," and the Duke of Berwick's "Memoirs."

CHAPTER XVIII.

RUSSIA AND SWEDEN UNDER PETER THE GREAT AND CHARLES XII.

Ch. 18 A. D. 1682. While Louis XIV. was prosecuting his schemes of aggrandizement, and William III. was opposing those schemes; while Villeroy, Villars, Marlborough, and Eugene were contending, at the head of great armies, for their respective masters, a new power was arising at the north, destined soon to become prominent among the great empires of the world.

Russia: its Sclavonic character.

The political importance of Russia was not appreciated at the close of the seventeenth century, nor, indeed, until the great resources of the country were brought to the view of Europe by the extraordinary genius of Peter the Great. Its history, before the reign of this distinguished prince, has not excited much interest, and is not particularly eventful or important. The Russians are descended from the ancient Sclavonic race, supposed to be much inferior to the Germanic or Teutonic tribes, to whom most of the civilized nations of Europe trace their origin.

Vladimir.

The first great event in Russian history is the nominal conversion of a powerful king to Christianity, in the tenth century, named Vladimir, whose reign was a mixture of cruelty, licentiousness, and heroism. Seeing the necessity of some generally recognized religion, he sent ten of his most distinguished men into all the various countries then known, to examine their religious systems. Being semi-barbarians, they were disposed to recommend that form which had the most imposing ceremonial, and appealed most forcibly to the

senses. The commissioners came to Mecca, but soon left with contempt, since Mohammedanism then made too great demands upon the powers of self-control, and prohibited the use of many things to which the barbarians were attached. They were no better pleased with the Manichean philosophy, which then extensively prevailed in the East; for this involved the settlement of abstract ideas, for which barbarians had no relish. They disliked Roman Catholicism, on account of the arrogant claims of the Pope. Judaism was spurned, because it had no country, and its professors were scattered over the face of the earth. But the lofty minarets of St. Sophia, and the extravagant magnificence of the Greek worship, filled the commissioners with admiration; and they easily induced Vladimir to adopt the forms of the Greek Church, which has ever since been the established religion of Russia. But Christianity, in this corrupted form, failed to destroy, and scarcely alleviated, the traits of barbarous life. Old superstitions and vices prevailed; nor were the Russian territories on an equality with the Gothic kingdoms of Europe, in manners, arts, learning, laws, or piety.

Ch. 18 — A. D. 1682. — Conversion to Christianity.

When Genghis Khan, with his Tartar hordes, overran the world, Russia was subdued, and Tartar princes took possession of the throne of the ancient czars. But the Russian princes, in the thirteenth century, recovered their ancient power. Alexander Nevsky performed exploits of great brilliancy,—gained important victories over Danes, Swedes, Lithuanians, and Teutonic knights, and greatly enlarged the boundaries of his kingdom. In the fourteenth century, Moscow became a powerful city, to which was transferred the seat of government, which before was Novgorod. Under the successor of Ivan Kalita, the manners, laws, and institutions of the Russians became fixed, and the absolute power of the czars was established.

Early history of Russia.

Under Ivan III., who ascended the Muscovite throne in 1462, the Tartar rule was abolished, and the various provinces and principalities of which Russia was composed, were

Ivan III.

Ch. 18 brought under a central government. The Kremlin, with its mighty towers and imposing minarets, now arose in all the grandeur of Eastern art and barbaric strength. The mines of the country were worked, the roads cleared of banditti, and a code of laws established. The veil which concealed Russia from the rest of Europe was rent. An army of three hundred thousand men was enlisted, Siberia was discovered, the printing press introduced, and civilization commenced. But the Czar was, nevertheless, a brutal tyrant and an abandoned libertine. Most of his successors were disgraced by every crime which degrades humanity; and with few exceptions, the whole population remained in rudeness and barbarism, superstition and ignorance.

A. D. 1682.

Accession of Peter.

Such was Russia, when Peter, the son of Alexis Michaelovitz, ascended the throne, in 1682—a boy, ten years of age. He early exhibited great sagacity and talent, but was addicted to gross pleasures. These, however, did not enervate him, or prevent him from making considerable attainments. At this time, Sophia, a daughter of Alexis by a first marriage, was regent, and, jealous of his growing power, she attempted to secure his assassination. In this she failed, and the youthful sovereign reigned supreme in Moscow, at the age of seventeen.

No sooner did he assume the reins of empire, than his genius blazed forth with singular brilliancy, and the rapid development of his powers was a subject of universal wonder. Full of courage and energy, he found nothing too arduous for him to undertake; and he soon conceived the vast project of changing the whole system of his government, and reforming the manners of his subjects.

His genius.

He first directed his attention to the art of war, and resolved to increase the military strength of his empire. With the aid of Le Fort, a Swiss adventurer, and Gordon, a Scotch officer, he instituted, gradually, a standing army of twenty thousand men, officered, armed, and disciplined after the European model; cut off the long beards of the soldiers, took away their robes, and changed their Asiatic dress. He also studied

assiduously the art of ship-building, and laid the foundation of a navy. Even then he cherished the idea that Russia might one day become a great maritime power. Ch. 18 A. D. 1689 to 1698.

His enterprising and innovating spirit created, as was to be expected, considerable disaffection among the partisans of the old *régime*, who were stripped of many of their privileges. A rebellion was the consequence: this, however, was soon suppressed, and the conspirators were executed with unsparing cruelty.

His travels.

He then came to the singular resolution of visiting foreign countries, in order to acquire useful information, both as to government and the arts of civilization. Many amusing incidents are recorded of him in his travels. He journeyed in disguise; clambered up the sides of ships, ascended the rigging, and descended into the holds; he engaged as a workman in Holland, lived on the wretched stipend which he earned as a ship-carpenter, and mastered all the details of ship-building. From Holland, in 1698, he went to England, where he was received with great honor by William III.; he studied manufactures and trades, and sought to gain knowledge on all common subjects. From England he went to Austria, intending to go afterwards to Italy; but he was compelled to return home, on account of a rebellion of the old military guard, called the *Strelitz*, who were peculiarly disaffected. He at once suppressed the discontents, and punished the old soldiers with unsparing rigor, executing thirty of them with his own hands.

His reforms.

He then turned himself, in good earnest, to the work of reform. His passions were military, and he longed to conquer kingdoms and cities. But he saw no probability of success, unless he could first civilize his subjects, and teach his soldiers the great improvements which had been made in the art of war. In order to conquer, he resolved first to reform his people. His ruling passion was the aggrandizement of himself and of his nation. But Providence designed that this should be made subservient to the welfare of his race, and

Ch. 18 gave him sufficient enlargement of mind to perceive the true sources of national prosperity.

A. D. 1697 to 1700. His first object was the improvement of the military force. To effect this, he abolished the old privileges of the soldiers, disbanded them, and drafted them into new regiments, which he had organized on the European plan.

Changes in the army. He found more difficulty in changing the dress of the people, who, generally, wore the long Asiatic robe, and the Tartar beard. Such was the opposition made, that he was obliged to compromise the matter, and to compel all who would wear beards and robes to pay a heavy tax, excepting only priests and peasants. He granted the indulgence to priests on account of the ceremonial of their worship, and to peasants in order to render their costume ignominious.

His next important measure was the toleration of all religions, and all sects, with the exception of the Jesuits, whom he hated and feared. He caused the Bible to be translated into the Sclavonic language; founded a school for the marine, and also institutions for the encouragement of literature and art. He abolished the old and odious laws of marriage, by which women had no liberty in the choice of husbands. He suppressed all useless monasteries; taxed the clergy as well as the laity; humiliated the patriarch, and assumed many of his powers. He improved the administration of justice; mitigated laws in relation to woman; and raised her social rank. He established post-offices, boards of trade, a vigorous police, hospitals, and almshouses. He humbled the nobility, and abolished many of their privileges; for which the people honored him, and looked upon him as their benefactor.

General improvements.

Having organized his army, and effected these great social reforms, he now turned his attention to various schemes for national aggrandizement.

War with Sweden. His first war was with Sweden, then the most powerful of the northern States, and ruled by Charles XII., who, at the age of eighteen, had just ascended the throne. The *cause* of the war was the desire of aggrandizement on the part of the Czar;

Ch. 18

A. D. 1700.

the *pretence* was the restitution of some lands which Sweden had obtained from Denmark and Poland. Taking advantage of the defenceless state of Sweden, attacked, at that time, by Denmark on the one side, and by Poland on the other, Peter, in the year 1700, invaded the territories of Charles with an army of sixty thousand men, and laid siege to Narva. The Swedish forces were only twenty thousand; but they were veterans, and they were headed by a hero. Notwithstanding the great disproportion between the contending parties, the Russians were defeated, and their artillery fell into the hands of the Swedes. The victory at Narva assured Charles of fame, but intoxicated his mind, and led to presumptuous self-confidence; while the defeat of Peter did not discourage him, but braced him to make still greater exertions. The Czar was conscious of his strength, as well as of his weakness. He knew he had unlimited resources, but that his troops were inexperienced; and he made up his mind for disasters at the beginning, in the hope of victory in the end. "I know very well," said he, "that the Swedes will have the advantage over us for a considerable time; but they will teach us at length to beat them." Charles, on the other hand, was intoxicated with victory, and acquired that fatal presumption which finally proved disastrous to himself and to his country.

Defeat of Peter.

Peter, while making new military preparations, still vigorously prosecuted his schemes of internal improvement, and projected the union, by a canal, of the Baltic and Caspian Seas. About this time, he introduced into Russia flocks of Saxony sheep, erected linen and paper manufactories, built hospitals, and invited skilful mechanics, of all trades, to settle in his kingdom. But Charles thought only of war and glory. He pursued his military career by invading Poland, then ruled by the Elector of Saxony; while Peter turned his attention to the organization of new armies, melting bells into cannon, constructing fleets, and attending to all the complicated cares of a mighty nation with the most minute assiduity.

New military preparations.

Ch.18 He drew plans of fortresses, projected military reforms, and inspired his soldiers with his own enthusiasm. And his
A. D. 1703. energy and perseverance were soon rewarded. He captured Marienburgh, a strong city on the confines of Livonia and Ingria; and among the captives took a young peasant girl, who eventually became the Empress Catharine, and to whose counsels Peter was much indebted for his great success.

Marriage with Catharine.

She was the daughter of a poor woman of Livonia, and lost her mother at the age of three years; she then attracted the notice of a Lutheran clergyman, was brought up with his own daughters, and subsequently married a young sergeant of the army, who was killed in the capture of the city. She interested the Russian general by her intense grief and great beauty; was taken into his family, and, soon after, won the favor of Prince Menzikoff, who had himself risen from obscurity to be the prime minister of the Czar; became mistress of his palace; there beheld Peter himself, captivated him, and was married to him,—at first privately, and afterwards publicly. Her rise, from so obscure a position, in a distant country town, to be the wife of the absolute monarch of an empire of thirty-three millions of people, is one of the most extraordinary events in the history of the world. When she enslaved the Czar by the power of her charms, she was only seventeen years of age. This was two years after the foundations of St. Petersburg were laid.

Building of St. Petersburg.

The building of this great northern capital, in 1703, was as extraordinary as the other acts of the monarch. Amid the marshes at the mouth of the Neva, a rival city to the ancient metropolis of the empire arose as if by magic. One hundred thousand people perished during the first year, in consequence of the severity of their labors, and the pestilential air of the place. But Peter persevered. The new city was the delight and pride of the Czar, who made it the capital of his vast dominions. It was scarcely built, before its great commercial advantages were appreciated; and vessels from all parts of the world, freighted with the various treasures of its

different kingdoms and countries, appeared in the harbor of Cronstadt. Ch. 18

A. D. 1704 to 1708.

Charles XII. looked with contempt on the Herculean labors of his rival to civilize and enrich his country, and remarked "that the Czar might amuse himself as he saw fit in building a city, but that he should soon take it from him, and set fire to his wooden house;" a boast, which, like many others, came most signally to nought. Indeed, success now turned in favor of Peter, whose forces had been constantly increasing. City after city fell into his hands, and whole provinces were conquered from Sweden. Soon all Ingria was added to the empire of the Czar, the government of which was entrusted to Menzikoff, a man of extraordinary abilities.

Increasing power of Peter.

While Peter was thus contending with the armies of Sweden, he succeeded in embroiling her in a war with Poland, and by so doing diverted invasion from his own shores. Had Charles perseveringly concentrated all his strength on an invasion of Russia, he might have changed the politics of Europe; but he was induced to invade Poland first, and then found, when he turned towards Russia, that the Czar was ready to meet him, at the head of immense armies.

Charles XII. invades Russia.

The Russian forces amounted to one hundred thousand men; the Swedish to eighty thousand, and they were veterans. Peter did not venture to risk the fate of his empire by a pitched battle with such an army of victorious troops. So he attempted a stratagem, and succeeded. He decoyed the Swedes into a barren and wasted territory; and Charles, instead of marching to Moscow, as he ought to have done, followed his expected prey where he could get neither provisions for his men, nor forage for his horses. Exhausted by fatigue and famine, he was defeated in a disastrous battle, but, struck with madness, refused to retreat. Disasters multiplied. The victorious Russians hung upon his rear. The Cossacks cut off stragglers. The army of eighty thousand melted away to twenty-five thousand. Still the infatuated Swede dreamed of victory. The winter set in with its northern severity, and

Defeat of Charles.

Ch. 18 reduced still further his famished troops. He lost time by marches and counter-marches, without guides, and in the midst of a hostile population. At last he reached Pultowa, a village on the banks of the Vorskla. Here Peter hastened to meet him, with an army of sixty thousand, and on the 15th of June, 1709, one of the bloodiest battles in the history of war was fought. The Swedes performed miracles of valor. But valor could do nothing against overwhelming strength. A disastrous defeat was the result, and Charles, with a few regiments, escaped to Turkey.

A. D. 1709 to 1712.

Battle of Pultowa.

Had the battle of Pultowa been decided differently; had Charles conquered instead of Peter, or had Peter lost his life, the empire of Russia would probably have been replunged into its original barbarism, and the balance of power, in Europe, been changed.

But Providence, which ordained the civilization of Russia, also ordained that the triumphant Czar should himself learn lessons of humility. The Turks, in consequence of the intrigues of Charles, and their hereditary jealousy, made war upon Peter, and advanced against him with an army of two hundred and fifty thousand men. His own army was composed of only forty thousand. On the banks of the Pruth, in Moldavia, in 1712, he was surrounded by the whole Turkish force, and famine or surrender seemed inevitable. It was in this desperate and deplorable condition that he was rescued by the Czarina Catharine, by whose address a treaty was made with the victorious enemy, and Peter was allowed to retire with his army.

Critical situation of Peter.

Charles was indignant beyond measure with the Turkish general, for granting such easy conditions, when he had the Czar in his power; and when to his reproaches the vizier of the Sultan replied, "I have a right to make peace or war, and our law commands us to grant peace to our enemies, when they implore our clemency," Charles replied with an insult. Though a fugitive in the Turkish camp, he threw himself on a sofa, contemptuously cast his eye on all

Folly of Charles.

present, stretched out his leg, and entangled his spur in the vizier's robe; which insult the magnanimous Turk affected to consider an accident. Ch. 18 A. D. 1712 to 1717.

After this defeat, Peter devoted himself with renewed energy to the improvement of his country. He embellished St. Petersburg, his new capital, with palaces, churches, and arsenals. He increased his army and navy, strengthened himself by new victories, and became gradually master of both sides of the Gulf of Finland, by which his vast empire was protected from invasion.

He now reached the exalted height to which he had long aspired. He assumed the title of Emperor, and his title was universally acknowledged. Assumes the title of Emperor.

He next meditated a second tour of Europe, with a view to study the political constitutions of the various States. Eighteen years had elapsed since, as a young enthusiast, he had visited Amsterdam and London. He now (1716) travelled, a second time, with the additional glory of a great name, and in the full maturity of his mind. He visited Hamburg, Stockholm, Lubeck, Amsterdam, and Paris. At this latter place he was much noticed. Wherever he went, his course was a triumphant procession. But he disdained flattery, and was wearied with pompous ceremonies. He could not be flattered out of his simplicity, or cheated of his zeal for acquiring useful knowledge. He visited all the works of art, and was particularly struck with the Gobelin tapestries and the tomb of Richelieu. "Great man," said he, apostrophizing his image, "I would give half of my kingdom to learn of thee how to govern the other half." Renewed travels.

From Paris he went to Berlin. There he found sympathy with Frederic William, whose tastes and character somewhat resembled his own; and from him he obtained many useful suggestions in the art of government. But he was suddenly recalled from Berlin by the bad conduct of his son Alexis, who, though heir to his throne, was hostile to his father's plans of reform, and had indecently expressed a wish

Ch. 18 for his death. Peter had him at once tried, disgraced, and disinherited. He would probably have been executed, had he not died in prison. This took place on the 7th of July, 1718.

A. D. 1718 to 1725.

Peter now prosecuted both his wars and his reforms. The treaty of Neustadt, concluded in the year 1721, secured to Russia, after twenty years of unbroken war, a vast increase of territory, and placed her at the head of the northern powers. The Emperor also enriched his country by opening new branches of trade, constructing canals, rewarding industry, suppressing gambling and mendicity, introducing iron and steel manufacture, building cities, and establishing a vigorous police.

Treaty of Neustadt.

After having settled the finances and trade of his empire; subdued his enemies at home and abroad; and compelled all the nobles and clergy to swear fealty to the person whom he should select as his successor, he appointed his wife, Catharine; and she was solemnly crowned Empress in 1724, he himself, at her inauguration, walking on foot, as captain of her guard. He could not have made a better choice, as she was, in all substantial respects, worthy of the exalted position to which she was raised.

Catharine crowned Empress.

In about a year after, he died, leaving behind him his principles and a mighty name. Other kings have been greater generals; but few have derived greater advantages from war. Many have commanded larger armies; but he created those which he commanded. Many have destroyed; but he reconstructed. He was a despot, but he ruled for the benefit of his country. He was disgraced by violent passions, his cruelty was sanguinary, and his tastes were brutal; but his passions did not destroy his judgment, nor his appetites make him luxurious. He was incessantly active and vigilant. His prejudices were few, and his views tolerant and enlightened. He was only cruel when his authority was impeached. His best portraiture is in his acts. He found a country semi-barbarous, convulsed by disorders, a prey to petty tyrannies, weak from disunion, and trembling before powerful neighbors.

Death and character of Peter.

He left it a first class power, freed in a measure from its barbarous customs, improved in social life, in arts, in science, and, perhaps, in morals. He left a large and disciplined army, a considerable navy, and numerous institutions for the civilization of the people. He did more. He left the moral effect of a great example; of a man in the possession of unbounded riches and power making great personal sacrifices to improve himself in the art of governing, for the welfare of millions over whom he was called to rule. These virtues and these acts have justly won for him the title of PETER THE GREAT.

Reign of Charles XII.

The reign of Charles XII. is intimately connected, as we have already seen, with that of Peter; these monarchs being contemporaries and rivals. With Charles, war was a passion and a profession. The interest which attaches to his name arises more from his eccentricities and brilliant military qualities, than from any extraordinary greatness of mind or heart. He was barbarous in his manners, and savage in his resentments; a stranger to the pleasures of society, obstinate, revengeful, unsympathetic, and indifferent alike to friendship and hatred. But he was brave, temperate, generous, intrepid in danger, and firm in misfortune.

Before his singular career can be properly sketched, attention must be directed to the country over which he reigned, which will be noticed in connection with Denmark.

Early condition of Sweden.

These two countries form a great part of the ancient Scandinavia, from which our Teutonic ancestors migrated, the land of Odin, and Frea, and Thor, those half-fabulous deities, concerning whom there are still divided opinions; some supposing that they were heroes, and others, impersonations of virtues, or elements and wonders of nature. The mythology of Greece does not more fully abound with gods and goddesses, than that of old Scandinavia with rude deities,—dwarfs, and elves, and mountain spirits. It was in these regions that the Normans acquired their wild enthusiasm, their supernatural

Ch. 18 daring, and their magnificent superstitions. It was from hence that the Saxons brought their love of liberty, their spirit of enterprise, and their restless passion for the sea. The ancient Scandinavians were heroic, adventurous, and chivalrous robbers, holding their women in great respect, and profoundly reverential in their notions of a supreme power. They were poor in silver, in gold, in the fruits of the earth, in luxuries, and in palaces; but rich in poetic sentiments and in religious ideas. Their chief vices were those of gluttony and intemperance, and their great pleasures were those of hunting and gambling.

A. D. 1697 to 1718.

Ancient Scandinavia.

Fabulous as are most of their legends, it is still probable that Scandinavia was peopled with hardy races before authentic history commences. Under different names, and at different times, they invaded the Roman empire. In the fifth century they had settled in its desolated provinces—the Saxons in England, the Goths in Spain and Italy, the Vandals in Africa, the Burgundians in France, and the Lombards in Italy.

The Northmen.

Among the most celebrated of these northern Teutonic nations were the pirates who invaded England and France, under the name of *Northmen*. They came from Denmark, and some of their chieftains won a great name in their generation, such as Harold, Canute, Sweyn, and Rollo.

Christianity was probably planted in Sweden about the middle of the ninth century. St. Anscar, a Westphalian monk, was the first successful missionary, and he was made Archbishop of Hamburg, and primate of the north.

Early kings of Sweden

The early history of the Swedes and Danes closely resembles that of England under the Saxon princes, and they were disgraced by the same national vices. During the Middle Ages no great character appeared worthy of especial notice. Some of the more powerful kings, however, such as Valdemar I. and II., and Canute VI., had quarrels with the Emperors of Germany, and invaded some provinces of their empire.

The most distinguished of these was Christian I., who founded the dynasty of Oldenburgh, and who united under

his sway the kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. He reigned from 1448 to 1481; and in his family the crown of Sweden remained until the revolution effected by Gustavus Vasa, when Sweden was made independent of Denmark. Ch. 18 A. D. 1697 to 1718.

Gustavus Vasa was a nobleman descended from the ancient kings of Sweden, and who, from the oppression to which his country was subjected by Christian and the Archbishop of Upsal, was forced to seek refuge amid the forests of Dalecarlia. When Stockholm was pillaged, and her noblest citizens massacred by the cruel tyrant of the country, Gustavus headed an insurrection, and in the year 1525 defeated the King's forces, and was himself made King by the Diet. Perceiving that the Catholic clergy were opposed to the liberties and the great interests of his country, he seized their fortresses and lands, became a convert to the doctrine of the Reformers, and introduced Lutheranism into the kingdom, which has ever since been the established religion of Sweden. He was despotic in his government, but ruled for the good of his subjects, and was distinguished for many noble qualities. Gustavus Vasa.

The celebrated Gustavus Adolphus was his descendant, and was more absolute and powerful than even Gustavus Vasa. He has already been noticed as the great hero of the Thirty Years' War. Under his sway, Sweden was the most powerful of the northern kingdoms. Gustavus Adolphus.

Gustavus Adolphus was succeeded by his daughter Christina, a woman of genius, of taste, and of culture; who, at twenty-seven, became wearied of unlimited power, changed her religion, retired from her country, and abdicated her throne; that she might enjoy, unmolested, the elegant pleasures of Rome, and be solaced by the literature, religion, and art of that splendid capital. It was in the society of men of genius that she spent most of her time, and she was the life of the most intellectual circle which then existed in Europe. Christina.

She was succeeded by her cousin, who was elected King of Sweden, with the title of Charles Gustavus X., and he again was succeeded by Charles XI., the father of Charles XII.

Ch. 18

A. D. 1697 to 1700.

Charles XII. came to the throne in the year 1697. He was then fifteen years of age. He found his country strong in resources, and his army the best disciplined in Europe. His territories were one third larger than those of France when ruled by Louis XIV., though not so thickly populated.

Charles XII. His early life.

The young Monarch, at first, gave but few indications of the remarkable qualities which afterwards distinguished him. He was idle, dissipated, haughty, and luxurious. When he came to the council chamber, he was absent and indifferent, and generally sat with both legs thrown across the table. But his lethargy and indifference did not last long. Three great monarchs had conspired to ruin him, and to dismember his kingdom. These were the Czar Peter, Frederic IV. of Denmark, and Frederic Augustus, King of Poland, also Elector of Saxony; and their hostile armies were on the point of invading his country.

The change in his character.

The imminence of the danger brought to light his great qualities. He vigorously prepared for war. His whole character changed. Quintus Curtius became his text-book, and Alexander his model. He spent no time in sports or magnificence. He clothed himself like a common soldier, whose hardships he resolved henceforth to share. He forswore the society and the influence of women. He relinquished wine and all the pleasures of the table. Love of glory became his passion, and ever afterwards made him insensible to reproach, danger, toil, fear, hunger, and pain. Never was a more complete change effected in a man's moral character; and never was an improved moral character consecrated to a worse end. For that end was not the true interest of his country, but a selfish, base, and vain passion for military fame.

His heroism.

His conduct, at first, called forth universal admiration. His glorious and successful defence against enemies, apparently overwhelming, gave him a great military reputation, and secured for him the sympathies of Christendom. Had he died when he had repelled the Russian, the Danish, and the Polish armies, he would have secured as honorable an immortality

as that of Gustavus Adolphus. But he was not permitted to die like his great ancestor. He lived long enough to become intoxicated with success, to make great political blunders, and to suffer the most fatal and mortifying misfortunes. Ch. 18 A. D. 1700 to 1707

The commencement of his military career in 1700 was beautifully heroic. "Gentlemen," said the young monarch of eighteen to his counsellors, when he meditated desperate resistance, "I am resolved never to begin an unjust war, and never to finish a just one, but with the destruction of my enemies." In six weeks after its commencement he finished the Danish war, having completely humbled his enemy, and succored his brother-in-law, the Duke of Holstein.

His war with Russia.

His conflict with Peter, at Narva, has already been narrated; when with twenty thousand men he attacked and defeated sixty thousand Russians in their intrenchments, took one hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, and killed eighteen thousand men. The victory astonished all Europe; it was the most brilliant which had then been gained in the annals of modern warfare.

With Poland.

Charles was equally successful against Frederic Augustus. He routed his Saxon troops, and then resolved to dethrone him as King of Poland. He succeeded so far as to induce the Polish Diet to proclaim the throne vacant. Augustus was obliged to fly, and in 1704 Stanislaus Leczinski was chosen King in his stead, at the nomination of the Swedish conqueror. The country was subjugated, and Frederic Augustus became a fugitive.

With Saxony.

But Charles was not satisfied with expelling Frederic from Poland; he resolved to attack him also in Saxony itself. Saxony was then, next to Austria, the most powerful of the German States. But she could not arrest the victorious career of Charles. The Saxons fled as he approached. He penetrated to the heart of the country, and the unfortunate Elector was obliged in 1707 to sue for peace. This was only granted on the humiliating condition, that the Elector should acknowledge Stanislaus as King of Poland; that he should

Ch. 18 break all his treaties with Russia, and that he should deliver to the King of Sweden all the men who had deserted from his army. The humbled Elector sought a personal interview with Charles, after he had signed the treaty, with the hope of securing better terms. He found Charles in his jack boots, with a piece of black taffeta round his neck for a cravat, and clothed in a coarse blue coat with brass buttons. The conversation turned wholly on his jack boots; and this trifling subject was the only one on which he would deign to converse with one of the most accomplished monarchs of his age.

A. D. 1707 to 1709.

Pride and ambition.

Charles had now humbled and defeated all his enemies. He should have returned to Sweden, and have cultivated the arts of peace. But peace and civilization were far from his thoughts. The subjugation of all the northern powers became the dream of his life, and he invaded Russia, resolved on driving Peter from his throne.

But when Charles became the assailant of the rights of others, his reverses commenced. At the head of forty-three thousand veterans, loaded with the spoils of Poland and Saxony, he commenced his march towards Russia. He had another army in Poland of twenty thousand, and another in Finland of fifteen thousand. With these he expected easily to dethrone the Czar.

His reverses.

His mistakes and infatuation have already been noticed, and his final defeat in 1709 at Pultowa, a village at the eastern extremity of the Ukraine. By this battle the strength of Charles was annihilated. And so would have been his hopes, had he been an ordinary man. But he was a madman, and still dreamed of victory, although a fugitive, with only eighteen hundred men to follow his fortunes.

And follies.

His conduct in Turkey was infamous and extraordinary. No reasoning can explain it. It was both ridiculous and provoking. At first, he employed himself in fomenting quarrels, and devising schemes to embark the Sultan in his cause. [redacted] after vizier was flattered and assailed. He rejected [redacted] overtures for his peaceable return to Sweden. He lin-

gered five years, employed in endless intrigues and negotiations, to realize the great dream of his life—the dethronement of the Czar. During this time he lived recklessly on the bounty of the Sultan, taking no hints that even imperial hospitality might be abused and exhausted. At last, his inflexible obstinacy and dangerous intrigues so disgusted his generous host, that he was urged to return, with the offer of a suitable escort, and a large sum of money. He accepted and spent the twelve hundred purses, and still refused to return. The displeasure of the Sultan Achmet was now fairly excited. It was resolved by the Porte that he should be removed by force, since he would not be persuaded. But Charles resisted the troops of the Sultan who were ordered to remove him. With sixty servants he desperately defended himself against an army of janizaries, and killed twenty of them with his own hand; and it was not until completely overwhelmed and prostrated that he hurled his sword into the air. He was now a prisoner of war, and not a guest; but still he was treated with the courtesy and dignity due to a king, and conducted in a chariot covered with gold and scarlet to Adrianople. From thence he was removed to Demotica, where he renewed his intrigues, and actually kept his bed, under pretence of sickness, for ten months.

Ch. 18 A. D. 1709 to 1714

His strange conduct.

While he remained in captivity, Frederic Augustus recovered the crown of Poland, and Peter continued his conquest of Ingria, Livonia, and Finland, provinces belonging to Sweden. The King of Prussia also invaded Pomerania, and Frederic IV. of Denmark claimed Bremen, Holstein, and Scania. The Swedes were divested of all their conquests, and one hundred and fifty thousand of them became prisoners in foreign lands.

Effects of his captivity.

Charles at length returned to his country, impoverished, but not discouraged. His soldiers were as brave and devoted as ever, but his resources were exhausted, and the charm of his name was broken. He succeeded, however, in raising thirty-five thousand men, in order to continue his desperate

Ch. 18 game, not of defence, but of conquest. Europe beheld the extraordinary spectacle of this infatuated Monarch passing, in the depth of a northern winter, over the frozen hills and ice-bound rocks of Norway, to conquer that hyperborean region. So inured was he to cold and fatigue, that he slept in the open air, on a bed of straw, covered only with his cloak, while his soldiers dropped down dead at their posts from cold. In the month of December, 1718, he commenced the siege of Fredericshall, a place of great strength and importance, but having exposed himself unnecessarily, was killed by a ball from the fortress. Many, however, suppose he was assassinated by his own officers, who were wearied of a course which involved nothing but disaster to their exhausted country.

A. D. 1715 to 1718.

His death.

His death was considered as a signal for the general cessation of arms; but Sweden never recovered from the consequences of his insane enterprises. The national finances were disordered, the population decimated, and the provinces dismembered. Peter the Great gained what his rival lost. Charles died unlamented and unhonored, having through life unscrupulously sacrificed both friends and enemies to gratify a selfish and a depraved passion.

REFERENCES. — Voltaire's "History of Russia," a very attractive book, on account of its lively style; Voltaire's "Life of Charles XII." is equally fascinating. There are also tolerable histories of both Russia and Sweden in Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopedia.

CHAPTER XIX.

REIGNS OF GEORGE I. AND GEORGE II.

QUEEN ANNE, who died in 1714, was succeeded by George I. Elector of Hanover. He was grandson of Elizabeth, only daughter of James I., who had married Frederic, the King of Bohemia. He was fifty-four years of age when he ascended the English throne, and imperfectly understood the language of the nation whom he was called upon to govern. Ch. 19 A. D. 1714. Accession of George I.

George I. was not a sovereign who materially affected the interests or destiny of England; nor was he one of those striking characters that historians like to delineate. It is generally admitted that he was prudent and moral; amiable in his temper, sincere in his intercourse, and simple in his habits,—qualities which command respect, but do not excite interest. It is supposed that he understood the English Constitution, and was quite willing to be fettered by the restraints which Parliament imposed. He supported the Whigs, the dominant party at the time of his accession, and quietly acquiesced in the rule of his ministers. From the accession of the house of Hanover, the political history of England is little more than a history of Parliament, and of those ministers who represented ruling opinions. Power of Parliament.

A notice, therefore, of that great minister who headed the Whig party, and who, as their organ, swayed the councils of England for nearly forty years, demands our attention. His political career commenced during the reign of Anne, and continued during that of George I., and part of the reign of George II.

Sir Robert Walpole belonged to an ancient and honorable

Ch. 19 family; was born in 1676, entered Parliament soon after
A. D. obtaining his first degree at King's College, Cambridge, in
1715. 1700, and in 1706 became Secretary at War. On the accession of George I. he was made paymaster of the forces, and
Sir Robert Walpole became one of the most influential members of the Government, which was composed of Lords Cowper, Marlborough, Wharton, Sunderland, Devonshire, Oxford, and Somerset. Townsend was made Secretary of State. The great leaders of the Tory party, Ormond and Bolingbroke, were now impeached and disgraced, on account of their supposed intrigues in favor of the Stuarts, who still meditated the recovery of the crown. Nor was the charge without foundation.

The first event of importance, under the new ministry, was the invasion of Great Britain, in the year 1715, by Prince
The Pretender. James Frederic Edward Stuart, only son of James II. His early days had been spent at St. Germains, the palace which the dethroned monarch enjoyed through the hospitality of Louis XIV. He was educated under influences utterly unfavorable to the recovery of his natural inheritance, being devoted to the Pope and to the interests of absolutism. But he had his adherents, who were called *Jacobites*, and they were chiefly to be found in the Highlands of Scotland. In 1705 he had made an unsuccessful effort to regain the throne of his father, but the disasters attending it prevented any further movement until the death of Anne.

When she died, many a discontented Tory fanned the spirit of rebellion; and Bishop Atterbury, a distinguished divine, openly advocated the Stuart claims. Scotland was ripe for
His partizans. revolt. Alarming riots took place in England. William III. was burned in effigy at Smithfield. The Oxford students pulled down a Presbyterian meeting-house, and the sprig of oak was publicly displayed on the 29th of May. The Earl of Mar hurried into Scotland to fan the spirit of insurrection; while the gifted, brilliant, and banished Bolingbroke joined the standard of the Chevalier. The venerable and popular Duke of Ormond also assisted him with his counsels.

Advised by these great men, assisted by the King of France, and flattered by the Jacobite faction, the Pretender made preparations to recover his rights. His prospects were apparently better than were those of William, when he landed in England. The Earl of Mar was at the head of ten thousand men; but the Chevalier was no general, and was unequal to his circumstances. When he landed in Scotland, he surrendered himself to melancholy and inaction. His sadness and pusillanimity dispirited his devoted band of followers. He retreated before inferior forces, and finally fled from the country which he had invaded. The French King was obliged to desert his cause, and on Jan. 7th, 1716, the Pretender retreated to Italy, where he died at the advanced age of seventy-nine. By his flight the insurrection was easily suppressed, and the country was not again molested by the intrigues of the Stuart princes for thirty years.

A. D. 1716.

Invasion of Scotland.

The year which followed the invasion was signalized by the passage of the famous Septennial Act, which prolonged Parliament from three to seven years. So many evils had practically resulted from frequent elections, that the Whigs resolved to make this change. It was a wise measure, and contributed greatly to the tranquillity of the country, and to the establishment of the House of Brunswick. The duration of an English Parliament has ever since, constitutionally, been extended to seven years, but the average period of their existence has been less than six years.

Septennial Bill.

After the passage of the Septennial Act, the efforts of Walpole were directed to a reduction of the national debt. His genius was eminently financial, and his talents were precisely those which have ever since been required of a minister. The great problem of any Government is, how to raise money for its necessities; and the more complicated the relations of society are, the more difficult becomes the problem.

Financial genius of Walpole.

At the period in question the English nation was under the influence of one of those singular commercial delusions which from time to time return and ravage civilized countries.

Ch. 19 — A. D. 1717 to 1720.

During the war of the Spanish Succession, the prime minister, Harley, afterwards Earl of Oxford, in order to raise money, projected the South Sea Company. This was in 1710, when the public debt was ten million pounds sterling, an amount thought at that time to be insupportable. The interest on the debt was six per cent. Of the new Company money was borrowed at five per cent., great advantages of a commercial kind being given in return. The gain of one per cent. was to constitute a sinking fund.

The South Sea Company.

But the necessities of the nation increased rapidly, and in the year 1720, a plan was arranged by which the South Sea Company should become the sole national creditor, and should loan to the Government new sums, at an interest of four per cent. New monopolies were to be given to the Company; and it, on the other hand, offered to give a bonus of three million pounds to the Government. The Bank of England, jealous of the proposal, offered five millions for the same advantages. The directors of the Company then bid seven millions for their charter,—nearly enough to pay off the whole redeemable debt of the nation. This however could not be accomplished, so long as there were, in addition, irredeemable annuities to the amount of eight hundred thousand pounds yearly.

To get rid of these, became therefore now the first object of the Government, and this, it was seen, would be effected, if the national creditor could be induced to accept of shares in the South Sea Company, instead of his irredeemable annuities, or, as they are now variously called, consols, stocks, or funds.

Wild financial schemes

So many monopolies and advantages were granted to the Company, that the national creditor, at length, consented to give up his security for South Sea stock. The Government, therefore, got rid of the irredeemable annuities, and obtained seven millions besides, becoming, of course, debtor to the Company.

A body which could apparently afford to pay so large a bonus to Government for its charter, and to loan such large sums as the nation needed in addition, at four per cent., was supposed to be making most enormous profits. Its stock rose

in value, and the national creditor willingly parted with his irredeemable annuities, which paid but five per cent., in order to buy shares which might pay ten per cent.

Walpole opposed the scheme with all his might, maintaining that the acceptance of the Company's proposal would countenance stockjobbing, would divert industry from its customary channels, and would hold out a dangerous lure to the unsuspecting to part with real for imaginary property. He showed the misery and confusion which existed in France from the adoption of similar measures, and proved that the whole success of the scheme must depend on the rise of the Company's stock; that if there were no rise, the Company could not afford the bonus, would fail, and the obligations of the nation would remain as before. But his reasonings were of no avail. All classes were infatuated. All speculated in the South Sea stock; and for a while everybody rejoiced, for as long as it continued to rise, all were gainers.

Walpole's insight.

The stock rose rapidly. It soon reached three hundred per cent. above its original value, for great dividends were promised. All hastened to buy such lucrative property. The public creditor willingly gave up three hundred pounds stock for one hundred pounds of the Company's shares.

Delusions of the nation.

All this would have been well had there been a moral certainty of the stockholder receiving the promised dividend of twenty per cent. But there was not this certainty, nor even a chance of it. Still great dividends were promised,—even as high as fifty per cent.; people believed, and the stock gradually rose to one thousand per cent. Such was the general mania. And such was the *extent* of it, that thirty-seven millions of pounds sterling were subscribed on the company's books.

The rage for speculation now extended to other kinds of property; and all sorts of companies were formed, some of the shares of which were at a premium of two thousand per cent. There were companies for fisheries, companies for making salt, for making oil, for smelting metals, for improving the breed of horses, for the planting of madder, for building ships against

Mania for speculation.

Ch. 19 pirates, for the importation of jackasses, for fattening hogs, for wheels of perpetual motion, for insuring masters against losses from servants. There was one company for carrying on an undertaking of great advantage, but no one knew for what. The subscriber, by paying two guineas as a deposit, was to have one hundred pounds per annum for every hundred subscribed. It was declared that in a month the particulars would be laid open, and the remainder of the subscription money was then to be paid. Notwithstanding the obvious character of this barefaced swindling scheme, two thousand pounds were received in one morning as deposit money. The next day, the projector was not to be found.

A. D. 1720.

Bubble schemes

In order to stop these absurd speculations, and to monopolize all the gambling in the kingdom, the directors of the South Sea Company obtained an act of parliament, empowering them to prosecute various bubble companies that were projected. They did so, and in a few days all burst. But the South Sea Company made a blunder. The moral effect of their proceedings was to open the eyes of the nation to the greatest bubble of all. The credit of their own company declined. Stocks fell from one thousand per cent. to two hundred in a few days. All wanted to sell, nobody to buy. Bankers and merchants failed, and nobles and country gentlemen became impoverished.

Their failure.

In this general distress, Walpole, who had temporarily retired, was summoned to power in order to extricate the country from bankruptcy. He proposed a plan, which was adopted, and which saved the credit of the nation. He ingrafted nine millions of the South Sea Stock into the Bank of England, and nine millions more into the East India Company; and Government gave up the seven millions of bonus which the Company had promised. By this assistance the public credit was saved, although all who purchased stock, when it had risen beyond one hundred per cent. of its original value, lost their money. Government gained by reducing the interest on irredeemable bonds from five to four per cent.

General distress.

Ch.19

A. D. 1721 to 1730.

After the explosion of the South Sea Company, Walpole became possessed of almost unlimited power. One of the first objects to which he directed his attention, after settling the finances, was the removal of petty restrictions on commerce. He abolished the export duties on one hundred and six articles of British manufacture, and allowed thirty-eight articles of raw material to be imported duty free. This regulation was made to facilitate trade with the colonies, and to prevent them from manufacturing; and it accomplished the end desired. Both England and the colonies were enriched. Under so wise an administration the country made great advances in substantial prosperity.

Abolition of Export duties.

King George I. died suddenly, on the 11th of June, 1727, by apoplexy, and was succeeded by his son George II., a man who resembled his father in disposition and character, and was probably superior to him in knowledge of the English constitution. Like George I. he was reserved, phlegmatic, and cautious, fond of business, economical, and attached to Whig principles. He was fortunate in his wife, Queen Caroline, who was one of the most excellent women of the age.

Accession of George II.

The new King disliked Walpole, but could not do without him. He had the good sense to perceive that England was to be governed only by a man in whom the nation had confidence, and therefore continued him in office.

In 1730, Walpole rechartered the East India Company, the most gigantic monopoly in the history of nations. As early as 1599, an association had been formed in England for trade to the East Indies. It sprang up in consequence of the Dutch and Portuguese settlements, which aroused the commercial jealousy of England. The capital was sixty-eight thousand pounds. In 1600, Queen Elizabeth gave the Company a royal charter. By this charter the Company obtained the right of purchasing land, without limit, in India, and the monopoly of its trade for fifteen years. The first voyage was made by four ships and one pinnace, having on board twenty-eight thousand

The East India Company.

Ch. 19 pounds in bullion, and seven thousand pounds in merchandise, such as tin, cutlery, and glass.

A. D. 1730 to 1732. During the civil wars, the Company's affairs became embarrassed, in consequence of the unsettled state of England. But, on the accession of Charles II., a new charter was obtained, which not only confirmed old privileges, but gave the power of making peace and war with the native princes of India. The capital stock was then increased to one million five hundred thousand pounds.

Charter of the Company.

Much opposition was made by Bolingbroke and the Tories to the granting of this charter; but the ministry carried their point, the Company paying Government for it two hundred thousand pounds, and reducing the interest of the Government debt one per cent. per annum.

In 1730 occurred the disagreement between Walpole and Townsend, which ended in the resignation of the latter; he was a man whose impetuous and quick temper ill fitted him to work with so cautious a statesman as his powerful rival. Lord Townsend passed the evening of his days in rural pursuits and agricultural experiments; keeping open house, devoting himself to his family and friends, never hankering after the power he had lost, never even revisiting London, but finding his richest solace in literature, and in simple agricultural pleasures.

Lord Townsend.

Walpole's peace policy.

The resignation of Townsend enabled Walpole to take a more decided part in foreign negotiations; and he exerted his talents, like Fleury in France, to preserve the peace of Europe. The foreign policy of Walpole entitles him to the gratitude of his country. More than any other man of his age, he apprehended the true glory and interest of nations. Had he paid as much attention to the intellectual improvement of his countrymen, as he did to the refinements of material life and to physical progress, he would have merited still higher praises. But he despised learning, and neglected literary men. The result was, they turned against him and his administration, and, by their sarcasm and invective, did much

to undermine his power. Pope, Swift, and Gay might have lent him powerful aid; but he passed them by with contemptuous indifference, and they gave to Bolingbroke what they withheld from Walpole.

Next to the pacific policy of the minister, the most noticeable peculiarity of his administration was his zeal to improve the finances. His great object was to obtain a permanent revenue by fixed principles. He regarded the national debt as a great burden, and strove to abolish it; and, when that was found to be impracticable, sought to prevent its further accumulation. He was not, indeed, always true to his policy; but he pursued it, on the whole, consistently. He favored the agricultural interest, and was inclined to raise the necessary revenue by a tax on articles used, rather than by direct taxation on property or income, or articles imported. Hence he is the father of the excise scheme, a measure introduced in 1733, in which his grand object was to ease the landed proprietor, by abolishing the land tax, and to prevent smuggling, by making it unprofitable. But the opposition was so great that Sir Robert abandoned the Bill; and the relinquishment of this favorite scheme is one of the most striking peculiarities of his administration. He never pushed matters to extremity. When he perceived that an armed force would be necessary in order to collect the excise, he preferred the abandonment of his cherished measure to the danger of incurring greater evils than financial embarrassment. His spirit of conciliation, often exercised in the plenitude of power, prolonged his reign. This policy was the result of vast experience, and that practical knowledge of human nature of which he was so great a master.

Financial policy.

Excise Bill.

In 1740, his power began to decline. He lost in 1737 an invaluable friend by the death of Queen Caroline, whose influence with the King was very great. He had always had great obstacles to contend with—the distrust of the King, the bitter hatred of the Prince of Wales, the violent opposition of leading statesmen in Parliament, and universal envy. But

Decline of power.

Ch. 19 now the opposition to him had become overwhelming, and he was obliged to retire. The King appreciated the value of his services, and in the year 1742 created him Earl of Orford, a dignity which had been offered to him before, but which, with self-controlling policy, he had unhesitatingly declined.

A. D. 1742.

Retirement of Walpole.

His retirement amid the beeches and oaks of his country seat was irksome to him. His tumultuous public life had engendered other tastes. But he maintained his good humor, "laughing the heart's laugh" to the last, and discharging all the rites of a generous hospitality.

It was during the latter years of the administration of Walpole, that England was electrified by the preaching of Wesley and Whitefield, and the sect of the Methodists arose; a movement which has since exercised a powerful influence on the morals, religion, and social life of England.

Wesley belonged to a good family, was educated at Oxford, and was a clergyman of the Established Church. He was at one time much courted by high society, being one of the most celebrated preachers of his day. In popular eloquence, however, he yielded the palm to Whitefield, the most extraordinary and fervent orator which the age produced. Immense crowds daily assembled to hear Whitefield preach, especially at Moorfields, Kennington Common, and Blackheath. He could draw tears from Hume, and money from Dr. Franklin. His discourses led to a great religious revival, which extended to America, where he died, in the year 1770. Wesley lived to a great age, after having seen that wonderful system of church polity, which he had devised, fully established, and effectively governing the numerous and powerful sect which he had founded. It would be interesting to trace more fully the labors of men who so greatly influenced the moral life of the country, but our limits will not permit. We must resumed the thread of political history.

Labors of the Methodists.

The Pelhams.

On the retirement of Walpole, in 1742, Lord Granville became Prime Minister, but, becoming unpopular, a new ministry was formed, which was headed by Henry Pelham, as

First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, and by the Duke of Newcastle, as principal secretary of state. These two men formed, in 1744, a coalition with the leading members of both houses of parliament, Tories as well as Whigs; and, for the first time since the accession of the Stuarts, there was no opposition. This great coalition was called the "Broad Bottom," and comprehended the Duke of Bedford, the Earls of Chesterfield and Harrington, Lords Lyttelton and Hardwicke, Sir Henry Cotton, Mr. Doddington, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Murray.

Their administration.

The Pelhams were descended from one of the oldest and richest families in England, and had great parliamentary influence from their connections, their wealth, and their experience. They were remarkable for sagacity, tact, and intrigue. They were extremely ambitious, and fond of place and power. Their administration is chiefly memorable for the Scotch rebellion of 1745, and for the great European war which grew out of colonial and commercial ambition, and the encroachments of Frederic the Great.

The young Pretender.

The Scotch rebellion was produced by the attempts of the young Pretender, Charles Edward Louis Philip Casimer Stuart, to regain the throne of his ancestors. His adventures have the interest of romance, and have generally excited popular sympathy. He was born at Rome, in 1720; served, at the age of fifteen, under the Duke of Berwick, in Spain, and, at the age of twenty, received overtures from discontented parties in Scotland to head an insurrection. He landed, with only seven followers, on one of the Western Islands, on the 18th of July, 1745. Even had the promises made to him by France been fulfilled, his enterprise would have been most hazardous; but, without money, men, or arms, it was desperate. He cherished, however, that presumptuous self-confidence which so often passes for bravery, and succeeded better than could have been anticipated. Several chieftains of the Highland clans joined his standard, and he had the faculty of gaining the hearts of his followers. At Borrodale occurred his first interview with

Invasion of Scotland.

Ch. 19 the chivalrous Donald Cameron of Lochiel, who, although perfectly persuaded of the desperate character of his enterprise, aided it with generous self-devotion.

A. D. 1745.

The standard of Charles Edward was raised at Glenfinnan, on the 19th of August, and a little band of seven hundred enthusiastic Highlanders resolved on the conquest of England! Never was devotion to an unfortunate cause more romantic and sincere. Never were energies more generously made, or more miserably directed. But the first gush of enthusiasm and bravery was attended with success, and the Pretender soon found himself at the head of fifteen hundred men, on his way to Edinburgh, marching among a people friendly to his cause, whom he endeared by attention and agreeable artifice. The simple people of the north of Scotland were won by his smiles and courtesy, and were astonished alike at the exertions which the young Prince made, and the fatigues he was able to endure.

Enthusiasm of the Scotch.

On the 15th of September, Charles reached Linlithgow, only sixteen miles from Edinburgh, where he was magnificently entertained in the ancient and favorite palace of the kings of Scotland. Two days after he made his triumphal entry into the capital of his ancestors, the place being unprepared for resistance. Colonel Gardiner, with his regiment of dragoons, was faithful to his trust, and the magistrates of Edinburgh did all in their power to prevent the surrender of the city. But the great body of the citizens preferred trusting to the clemency of Charles, and would not incur the risk of a defence.

Arrival at Linlithgow.

Thus, without military stores, or pecuniary resources, or powerful friends, simply by the force of persuasion, the Pretender, in the short space of two months from his landing in Scotland, quietly took possession of the most powerful city of the north. The Jacobites put no restraint to their idolatrous homage, and the ladies welcomed the handsome Chevalier with extravagant adulation. Even the Whigs pitied him, and permitted him to enjoy in quiet his brief hour of victory.

Capture of Edinburgh.

At Edinburgh Charles received considerable reinforcements,

and took from the city one thousand stand of arms. He gave his followers but little time for repose, and soon advanced against the royal troops, commanded by Sir John Cope. The two armies met at Preston Pans, and were of nearly equal force. The attack was made by the invader, and was impetuous and unlooked for. Nothing could stand before the enthusiasm and valor of the Highlanders; in five minutes the rout commenced, and great slaughter occurred. Among those who fell was the distinguished Colonel Gardiner, an old veteran, who refused to fly. Ch. 19 A. D. 1745.

Charles followed up his victory with moderation, and was soon master of all Scotland. He indulged his taste for festivities, at Holyrood, for a while, and neglected no means to conciliate the Scotch. He flattered their prejudices; gave balls, and banquets; made love to their most beautiful women, and denied no one access to his presence. Poets sang his praises, and women extolled his heroism and beauty. The light, the gay, the romantic, and the adventurous were all on his side; but the substantial and wealthy classes were against him, for they knew he must be conquered in the end. Moderation of Charles Edward.

Charles played on a desperate game for the small chance of winning a splendid prize. After resting his troops, and collecting all the force he could, he turned his face to England at the head of five thousand men, well armed, and well clothed, but discontented and dispirited, for the mass of his followers had never contemplated the invasion of England, but only the recovery of the ancient independence of Scotland.

On the 8th of November he set foot upon English soil, and entered Carlisle in triumph. But his forces, instead of increasing, diminished, and no popular enthusiasm supported the courage of his troops. Still he advanced towards the south, and reached Derby unmolested on the 4th of December. There he learned that the royal army, headed by the Duke of Cumberland, with twelve thousand veterans, was advancing rapidly against him. Invasion of England.

His followers clamored to return, and refused to advance another step. Charles was obliged to yield to an irresistible

Ch. 19 necessity. His spirits, hitherto buoyant and gladsome, now fell,
A. D. and despair succeeded to vivacity and hope. He abandoned
1746. himself to grief and vexation, lingered behind his retreating army, and was reckless of his men and of their welfare.

His miserable and dejected army succeeded in reaching Scotland, although pursued by cavalry and suffering much from hunger and fatigue. On the 26th of December, he entered Glasgow, levied a contribution on the people, and prepared for a final battle. He retreated to the Highlands, and spent the winter in recruiting his troops, and in taking fortresses. On the 15th of April, 1746, he drew up his army on the moor of Culloden, near Inverness, with the desperate resolution of attacking, with vastly inferior forces, the Duke of Cumberland, who was intrenched nine miles distant. The design was foolish and unfortunate. The royal troops attacked the dispirited followers of Charles Edward before they could form themselves in battle array. They were totally routed, and on that day the hopes of the Pretender perished.

Battle of Culloden.

The most horrid barbarities were inflicted by the victors. The wounded were left to die. The castles of the rebel chieftains were razed to the ground. Herds and flocks were driven away, and the people left to perish with hunger. Some of the captives were sent to Barbadoes, others were imprisoned, and many were shot. A reward of thirty thousand pounds was offered for the head of the Prince; but he nevertheless escaped. After wandering as a fugitive, disguised, wearied, and miserable, hunted from fortress to fortress, and from island to island, he succeeded, by means of the unparalleled loyalty and fidelity of his few Highland followers, in escaping to France. His adventures among the Western Islands, especially those which happened while wandering in the disguise of a female servant, with Flora Macdonald, are highly romantic. Wonderful, too, is the fact that, of the many to whom his secret was intrusted, not one was disposed to betray him, even in view of so splendid a bribe.

Flight of the Prince.

The latter days of the Pretender were spent in Rome and Florence. He married a Polish princess, and assumed the title of Duke of Albany. He never relinquished the hope of securing the English crown, and always retained his politeness and grace of manner. But he became an object of pity, not merely from his poverty and misfortunes, but also from the vice of intemperance, which he acquired in Scotland. He died of apoplexy, in 1788, and left no legitimate issue. The last male heir of the House of Stuart was the Cardinal of York, who died at Rome in 1807. He was buried in St. Peter's, and a marble monument, by Canova, was erected over his remains at the cost of George IV., to whom the Cardinal had left the crown jewels which James II. had carried with him to France. This monument bears the names of James III., Charles III., and Henry IX., kings of England; titles never admitted by the English. With the battle of Culloden expired the hopes of the Catholics and Jacobites to restore Catholicism and the Stuarts.

His death and character.

The great European war, which was begun by Sir Robert Walpole, not long before his retirement, and carried on during the administration of the Pelhams, will be treated in another place.

Misfortunes of various kinds, but especially the defeat of the English armies in America, contributed to make the Pelhams unpopular; and in 1746 the Duke of Newcastle was compelled to call Mr. Pitt and Mr. Legge into the Cabinet. After being at the head of the Government for ten years, he was, at length, obliged to resign; and George II., much against his will, entrusted the helm of state to William Pitt; the Duke of Devonshire being nominally Premier. This was in 1756.

Retirement of Newcastle.

Mr. Pitt, who was now rising into importance, was born in 1708, of good family, his grandfather having been Governor of Madras, and the purchaser of the celebrated diamond which bears his name, and which was sold to the Regent of France for one hundred and thirty-five thousand pounds. William was sent to Oxford at the age of seven-

Ch. 19 teen, and at twenty-seven became a member of Parliament. From his first appearance he was heard with attention, and, when years and experience had given him wisdom and power, his eloquence was overwhelming. No one ever equalled him in brilliant invective and scorching sarcasm.

A. D. 1757 to 1759.

The Administration formed at the close of 1756 lasted only five months; but during that time Admiral Byng was executed, and the Seven Years' War commenced, of which Frederic II. of Prussia was the hero.

Mr. Pitt forms a ministry.

In April, 1757, Pitt and his colleagues were dismissed. But never was popular resentment more fierce and terrible. Again was the King obliged to bend to the "great commoner." An arrangement was made, and a coalition formed. Pitt became Secretary of State, and virtually Premier, but the Duke of Newcastle came in as First Lord of the Treasury. Pitt selected the Cabinet. His brother-in-law, Lord Temple, was made Keeper of the Privy Seal, and Lord Grenville Treasurer of the Navy; Fox became Paymaster of the Forces; the Duke of Bedford received the Lord Lieutenancy of Ireland; Hardwicke, the greatest lawyer of his age, was made Lord Chancellor; and Legge, the ablest financier of his day, Chancellor of the Exchequer. Murray, a little while before, had been elevated to the bench, as Lord Mansfield. There was scarcely an eminent man in the House of Commons who was not included in the Administration. All the talent of the nation was laid at the feet of Pitt, and he had the supreme direction of the army and of foreign affairs.

His brilliant career.

Nothing could exceed the brilliancy of his career, which was marked, in America, by the conquest of Canada, and in the East by the acquisition of India. Equal success attended the allied armies, who were defending Prussia. On all sides the English were triumphant, and the nation became intoxicated with joy. The funds rose, and the bells rang an almost incessant peal for victories. In the midst of these public rejoicings, King George II. died.

His grandson, George III. entered upon his long reign in

October, 1760, in the twenty-third year of his age. He, or rather his ministers, resolved to prosecute the war then raging on the Continent, with vigor, and Parliament voted liberal supplies. The object of Pitt was the humiliation of France and Austria, and the protection of Prussia, struggling against overwhelming forces. He secured his end by administering to the nation continual draughts of flattery and military glory.

Accession of George III.

But however sincere the motives or brilliant the genius of the minister, it was impossible that a practical nation should not awake from such delusions. Statesmen began to calculate the cost of the war. Jealousies sprang up, and enmities were cherished. Some were offended by the haughtiness of the minister, and others were estranged by his withering invective. At length, he wished to declare war against Spain. The Cabinet could not be persuaded of its necessity, and Pitt resigned. He received a pension of three thousand pounds a year, and his wife was made a baroness. Soon after his retirement, under the administration of his successor, Lord Bute, the Peace of Paris, effected in 1763, put an end to hostilities.

Close of the war.

We must now resume the history of France, and of other continental powers.

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CHAPTER XX.

LOUIS XV. OF FRANCE.

Ch. 20 — A. D. 1715 to 1774.

THE reign of Louis XV. was one of the longest on record, extending from 1715 to 1774—the greater part of the eighteenth century.

During his minority, for he was only five years of age at the time of his accession, the reins of government were held by the Regent Duke of Orleans, the grand-nephew of Louis XIV. The most pressing subject which demanded attention, was that of the finances. The late King had left a debt of one thousand millions of livres—an enormous sum in that age; and the Duke St. Simon had proposed a bankruptcy. "It will fall," said he, "chiefly on the commercial and moneyed classes, who are neither to be feared nor pitied; and will, moreover, not only be a relief to the State, but a salutary warning to the ignoble not to lend their money," a speech strikingly illustrative of the feelings and opinions of a powerful class in France at that time. But the minister would not run the risk of incurring the odium which such a measure would have produced, and he, therefore, proposed calling together the States-General. The Regent would not hear of that measure, and yet did not feel inclined to follow the advice of St. Simon. He therefore compromised the matter, by adopting measures to defraud claimants of their rights.

Regency of the Duke of Orleans.

Financial difficulties

He first established a commission authorized to verify the bills of public creditors, and, if their accounts did not prove satisfactory, to cancel them entirely. Three hundred and fifty millions of livres were thus swept away. He next resolved

not only to refuse to pay just debts, but to make people refund the gains which they had made. Those who had loaned money to the State, or had farmed the revenues, were flung into prison, and threatened with the confiscation of their goods, unless they purchased pardon. The coin was then debased to such an extent, that seventy-two millions of livres were by this means added to the treasury. But even these gains were not enough, for the national debt had increased to fifteeen hundred millions of livres, or almost seventy millions sterling. So the Regent listened to the schemes of the celebrated John Law, a Scotch adventurer and financier, who had established a bank, had grown rich, and was reputed to be a wonderful political economist.

Fraudulent schemes.

Law proposed, in substance, to increase the paper currency of the country, and thus to supersede the necessity for the use of the precious metals. The Regent, having great faith in Law's abilities, and in his wealth, agreed to his proposals, and in 1719 converted his private bank into a royal one, and made it, in fact, the Bank of France. This bank was then allied to the two great commercial companies of the time, the East India and the Mississippi. Great privileges were bestowed on each. The latter had the exclusive monopoly of the trade with Louisiana, of all the countries on the Mississippi River, and also of the fur trade in Canada. Louisiana was then supposed to be rich in gold mines, a notion which generated many popular delusions.

Missisippi Company.

The capital of this gigantic corporation was fixed at one hundred millions; and Law, who was director-general, aimed to make the notes of the company preferable to specie, which, however, could lawfully be demanded for them. As extravagant hopes of gain were cherished respecting the company, its shares were in great demand. Law's bank bills could alone purchase the shares; so the gold and silver of the realm flowed into Law's bank. Law and the Regent had now, therefore, only to fabricate shares and bank bills to an indefinite amount.

Ch. 20 — A. D. 1719.

The national creditor was also paid in the notes of the bank; and as unbounded confidence existed, both in the genius of Law, and in the profits of the Mississippi Company, the shares were constantly in demand, were continually rising in value, and the creditor was satisfied. In a short time, one half of the national debt was transferred. Government became indebted to the bank, instead of to the individuals and corporations from whom loans had been originally obtained. These individuals, instead of Government scrip, had shares in the Mississippi Company.

Greatness of the popular delusion

All would have been well, had the Company's shares been really valuable, or had but a small part of the national debt been thus transferred. But the people did not know the real issues of the bank, and so long as new shares could be created and sold to pay the interest, the Company's credit was good. For a while the delusion lasted. Law was regarded as a great national benefactor. His house was thronged with dukes and princes. He became Controller-General of the Finances, and virtually Prime Minister. His fame extended far and wide. Honors were showered upon him from every quarter. He was elected a member of the French Academy. His schemes seemed to rain upon Paris a golden shower. He had freed the State from embarrassment; he had, apparently, made everybody rich, and no one poor. He was a deity, as beneficent as he was powerful.

General madness.

Everybody was intoxicated. Paris was crowded with speculators from all parts of the world. Five hundred thousand persons expended their fortunes, in the hope of making greater. Twelve hundred new coaches were set up in the city. Lodgings could scarcely be had for money. The highest price was paid for provisions. Widow ladies, clergymen, and noblemen deserted London to speculate in stocks at Paris. Nothing was seen but new equipages, new houses, new apparel, new furniture. Nothing was felt but universal exhilaration. Every man seemed to have made his fortune. The stocks rose every day. The higher they rose, the more new stock was created.

At last, the shares of the Company rose from one hundred to twelve hundred per cent., and three hundred millions were created, which were nominally worth three thousand six hundred millions of livres—one hundred and eighty times the amount of all the gold and silver at that time in Europe.

Bursting of the bubble.

At last the Prince of Conti, who had received enormous sums in bills, as the reward of his protection, annoyed to find that his increasing demands were resisted, presented his notes at the bank. Then other nobles did the same, and then foreign merchants, until the bank was drained of gold and silver. Then came the panic, and the fall of stocks; then general ruin; and then universal despondency and rage. The bubble had burst, and those who, a few days before, fancied themselves rich, now found themselves poor. Property of all kinds fell to less than its original value. Houses, horses, carriages, upholstery, everything, declined in price. All were sellers, and few were purchasers.

Popular execration and vengeance pursued the financier who had thus deceived the nation. He was forced to fly from Paris. His whole property was confiscated, and he was reduced to indigence and contempt. The bursting of the Mississippi bubble, of course, inflamed the nation against the Government; the Duke of Orleans was execrated, for his agency in the business had all the appearance of a fraud. But he was probably to some extent deluded as well as others. The great blunder was in the over-issue of notes, when there was no money to redeem them.

Inevitable consequences.

Nor could any management have prevented the catastrophe. "It was not possible that the shares of the Company should advance so greatly, and the public not perceive that they had advanced beyond their value; it was not possible, that, while paper money so vastly increased in quantity, the numerical prices of all other things should not increase also, and that foreigners who sold their manufactures to the French should not turn their paper into gold, and carry it out of the kingdom; it was not possible that the disappearance of the coin

Ch. 20 A. D. 1719 to 1723.

should not create alarm, notwithstanding the edicts of the regent, and the reasonings of Law; it was not possible that annuitants should not discover that their old incomes were now insufficient, as the medium in which they were paid was less valuable; it was not possible that the small part of society, which may be called the sober and reasoning part, should not be so struck with the sudden fortunes which were made, and the extravagant enthusiasm which prevailed, as not to doubt of the solidity of a system, unphilosophical in itself, and which, after all, had to depend on the profits of a commercial company, the good faith of the Regent, and the skill of Law; it was not possible, on these and other accounts, but that gold and silver should be at last preferred to paper notes, of whatever description or promise. These were inevitable consequences. Hence the failure of the scheme of Law, and the ruin of all who embarked in it, owing, first, to a change in public opinion as to the probable success of the scheme, and, secondly, to the over-issue of money." By this great folly, four hundred thousand families were ruined, or greatly reduced; while the Government got rid of about eight hundred millions of debt. Such was France under the Regency.

Unreasonableness of the scheme.

Extravagance of the King.

Nor was there a change for the better when Louis XV. attained his majority. His vices and follies exceeded all that had ever been displayed before. The support of his mistresses alone was enough to embarrass the nation. Their waste and extravagance almost exceeded belief. Five hundred millions of livres were added to the national debt for expenses too ignominious to be even named. The Parc au Cerfs cost the nation at least one hundred millions. The Palais Royal, the Palais Luxembourg, the Trianon, and Versailles, were alternately scenes of the most disgraceful excesses, and so vile was the Court that a celebrated Countess one day said at a public festival, that "God, after having formed man, took the mud that was left, and made the souls of princes and footmen."

The regency of the Duke of Orleans occupied the first

eight years of the reign of Louis XV. His prime minister was Dubois, afterwards Archbishop of Cambray, who was rewarded with a cardinal's hat for the service he rendered to the Jesuits in their quarrel with the Jansenists. He was a man of most unprincipled character, a fit minister to a prince who pretended to be too intellectual to worship God, and who copied Henry IV. only in his licentiousness. Ch. 20 A. D. 1723 to 1726. Cardinal Dubois.

The first minister of Louis XV., after he had himself assumed the reins of government, which took place in 1723, was the Duke of Bourbon, lineal heir of the house of Condé, and first prince of the blood. His short administration was signalized by no important event. Cardinal Fleury succeeded to the Duke. He had been preceptor of the King, and was superior to Court intrigue; a man of great timidity, but also a man of great probity, gentleness, and benignity. Fortunately he was intrusted with power at a period of domestic tranquillity, and his administration was, like that of Walpole, pacific. He however made no improvements either in laws or finance. He ruled despotically, but with good intentions, from 1726 to 1743. Cardinal Fleury.

The main subject of interest connected with his peaceful administration, was the quarrel between the Jesuits and the Jansenists. Fleury took the side of the former, although he was never an active partisan.

The Jansenist controversy was far from being terminated by the demolition of the Abbey of Port Royal, and the dispersion of those who sought its retreat. That controversy was the great event in the history of Catholic Europe during the eighteenth century, involving, as it did, principles of high political as well as theological interest. It had *originated* in long disputed questions pertaining to grace and free-will,—questions which were agitated with great acrimony in the seventeenth century, as they had previously been agitated centuries before by Augustine and Pelagius; it was *prolonged* because the independence of the National Church, and freedom of conscience from spiritual tyranny, were seen to be inti- The Jansenists.

Ch. 20 mately connected with the principles in dispute. Jansenism was in fact a mild form of Puritanism, a timid protest against ecclesiastical despotism, and as such, it always found many in France prepared to sympathize with it. Pascal is immortalized by the "Provincial Letters" which, in connexion with this great struggle, he directed against the Jesuits. These letters written in the purest French, with matchless power and beauty, inimitable models of irony, inflicted the severest blow that body of ambitious and artful casuists ever received. The quarrel now under notice proved that even the Parliament of Paris had, to some extent, caught its spirit.

A. D. 1726 to 1743.

The Parliament of Paris.

It so happened that a certain Bishop published a charge to his clergy which was strongly imbued with the independent doctrines of the Jansenists. He was tried and condemned by a provincial council, and banished by the Government. The Parliament of Paris, as the guardian of the law, took up the quarrel, and Cardinal Fleury was obliged to resort to a *Bed of Justice* in order to secure the registry of the decree. A Bed of Justice was the personal appearance of the Sovereign in the Supreme Judicial Tribunal of the nation; and his command to the members of it to obey his injunctions was the last resort of absolute power. The Parliament, of course, obeyed; but protested the next day, and drew up resolutions which declared the temporal power to be independent of the spiritual. It then proceeded to Meudon, one of the royal palaces, to lay its remonstrance before the King; but Louis XV., indignant and astonished, refused to see the members. The original controversy was now forgotten, and the cause of the Parliament, which was the cause of liberty, became the cause of the nation. The resistance was unsuccessful, yet it sowed the seeds of popular discontent, and contributed, among other causes, to that great insurrection which finally overturned the throne.

Its judicial character.

It may be asked how the Parliament of Paris became a judicial tribunal, rather than a legislative assembly, as in England? The reply is easily furnished. When the Justi-

nian code was introduced into French jurisprudence, in the latter part of the Middle Ages, the old feudal and clerical judges, the barons and bishops, were incapable of expounding it, and a new class of men arose, the lawyers, whose exclusive business it was to study the laws. Being best acquainted with them, they entered upon the functions of judges, and the secular and clerical lords yielded to their opinions. The great barons, however, still continued to sit in the judicial tribunals, although ignorant of the new jurisprudence; and their decisions were directed by the opinions of the lawyers who had obtained a seat in their body, as is the case at present in the English House of Lords, when it sits as a judicial body. The necessity of providing some permanent repository for the royal edicts, induced the kings of France to enrol them in the journals of the courts of Parliament, being the highest judicial tribunal; and the members of these courts gradually availed themselves of this custom to dispute the legality of any edict which had not been thus registered.

Its functions.

As the influence of the States-General declined, the power of the Parliament increased. The encroachments of the papacy first engaged its attention, and the management of the finances by the Ministers of Francis I. called forth remonstrances. During the war of the Fronde, the Parliament absolutely refused to register the royal decrees. But Louis XIV. was sufficiently powerful to suppress the spirit of independence, and accordingly entered the court, during the first years of his reign, with a whip in his hand, and compelled it to register his edicts. Nor did any murmur afterwards escape the body, until, at the close of his reign, the members opposed the bull *Unigenitus* (that which condemned the Jansenists) as an infringement of the liberties of the Gallican Church.

Growth of its power

During the administration of Fleury, a fresh cause of opposition sprang up. The minister of finance made an attempt to inquire into the wealth of the clergy, which raised the jealousy of the order; and the clergy, in order to divert

Quarrel with the King.

Ch. 20 the attention of the court, revived the opposition of the Parliament to the bull *Unigenitus*. It was resolved by the clergy to demand confessional notes from dying persons, and that these notes should be signed by priests adhering to the bull, before extreme unction should be given. On this point the Archbishop of Paris was opposed by the Parliament, and this high judicial court imprisoned such of the clergy as refused to administer the sacraments. The King, under the guidance of Fleury, forbade the Parliament to take cognizance of ecclesiastical proceedings, and required it to suspend its prosecutions. Instead of acquiescing, the Parliament presented new remonstrances, refused to attend to any other functions, and resolved that they could not obey this injunction without violating their consciences. They cited the Bishop of Orleans before their tribunal, and ordered all his writings, which denied the jurisdiction of the court, to be publicly burnt by the executioner. By aid of the military they enforced the administration of the sacraments, and became so interested in the controversy as to neglect other official duties.

A. D. 1748.

Spirited resistance.

The indignant King banished the members, with the exception of four, whom he imprisoned; and, in order not to impede the administration of justice, established another tribunal for the prosecution of civil suits. But the lawyers, sympathizing with the Parliament, refused to plead before the new court. This resolute conduct, and other evils happening at the time, induced the King to yield, in order to conciliate the people, and the Parliament was recalled. This was a popular triumph, and the Archbishop was in his turn banished. Shortly after, Cardinal Fleury died, and a new policy was adopted.

Madame de Pompadour.

On the death of Fleury (1743), who had administered affairs with wisdom and moderation, a great change took place in the character and measures of the King. The reign of mistresses commenced, to an extent unparalleled in the history of Europe. Louis XIV. had bestowed the revenue of the State on unworthy favorites; but Louis XV., not con-

tent with this, intrusted the most important State matters to their direction, and the profoundest State secrets to their keeping. Ch. 20 A. D. 1743 to 1762.

Among these, Madame de Pompadour was the most noted. She named and displaced the Comptroller General, and received herself annually nearly a million and a half of livres, besides hotels, palaces, and estates. Sprung from the middle ranks of society, she yet assumed the airs of a princess of the blood. She was unquestionably a woman of intellect and tact, but unprincipled beyond precedent. She was the patroness of artists and philosophers, but she liked those best who by their conduct and speculations sapped the foundations of that throne from which she derived her splendour. Ambition was her master-passion. Her *boudoir* was the royal council chamber. Most of the great men of France paid court to her; for to neglect this was social ruin. Voltaire praised her beauty, and Montesquieu flattered her intellect. Her extravagance was equal to her audacity. She insisted on drawing bills on the treasury without specifying the service. The Comptroller General was in despair, and the State was involved in inextricable embarrassments. Her extravagance.

Through her influence the Duc de Choiseul became the successor of Fleury. He was not deficient in talent; but his administration was unfortunate. Under his **rule**, in 1757, Louis lost the Canadas, and France plunged into a contest with Frederic the Great. Duc de Choiseul.

The most memorable event which arose out of the policy and conduct of Choiseul was the fall of the Jesuits. Their arts and influence had obtained from the Pope the bull *Unigenitus*, designed to suppress their enemies, the Jansenists; and the King, governed by Fleury, had taken their side. But they were so unwise as to quarrel with the powerful mistress of Louis XV. They despised her, and defied her hatred. She therefore only waited for an opportunity to effect their ruin. This was at length furnished by the failure of La Valette, the head of the Jesuits at Martinique.

Ch. 20 A. D. 1762. It must be borne in mind that the Jesuits had embarked in commercial enterprises, while officiating as missionaries. La Valette aimed to monopolize, for his order, the trade with the West Indies, and this commercial ambition excited the jealousy of the mercantile classes in France. It happened that some of his most valuable ships were taken and plundered by the English cruisers, which calamity, occurring at a time of embarrassment, caused his bills to be protested, and his bankers to stop payment. The bankers indignantly accused the Jesuits, as a body, of peculation and fraud, and demanded repayment from the Order. Had the Jesuits been wise, they would have satisfied them. But who is wise on the brink of destruction? The Jesuits refused to sacrifice La Valette. The matter was carried before the Parliament of Paris in the year 1762, and the whole nation was interested in the result. It was decided by this supreme judicial tribunal, that the Jesuits were responsible.

The Jesuits; their commercial affairs.

But the commercial injury was weak in comparison with the moral. In the course of these legal proceedings, the books and rule of the Jesuits were demanded; that mysterious rule which had never been exposed to the public eye, and which had been so carefully guarded. When this was produced, all minor questions vanished; mistresses, bankruptcies, politics, finances, wars, all became insignificant, compared with those questions which affected the position and welfare of "The Society." Pascal became a popular idol, and "Tartuffe grew pale before Escobar." Reports of the trial lay on every toilet table, and persons of both sexes, and of all ages and conditions, read with avidity the writings of the casuists. Nothing was talked about but "probability," "surrender of conscience," and "mental reservations." Philosophers grew jealous of the absorbing interest with which everything pertaining to the *régime* of the Jesuits was read, and of the growing popularity of the Jansenists, who had exposed it. "What," said Voltaire, "will it profit us to be delivered from the foxes, if we are to be given up to the wolves?" The philosopher had

Their principles and errors.

been among the first to raise the cry of alarm, and he now found it no easy thing to allay the storm.

The Jesuists, in their distress, had only one friend sufficiently powerful to protect them, and this was the King. He had been their best friend, and he still wished to come to their rescue. But his minister and his mistress circumvented him. They represented that, as the Parliament and the nation were both aroused against the Jesuits, his resistance would necessarily provoke a new Fronde. The wavering Monarch, placed in the painful necessity of choosing, as he supposed, between a war and the ruin of his best friends, yielded to the solicitations of his artful advisers. But he yielded with a moderation which did him honor. He would not consent to the expulsion of the Jesuits until efforts had been made to secure their reform. He accordingly caused letters to be written to Rome, demanding an immediate attention to the subject. Choiseul himself prepared the scheme of reformation. But the Jesuits would not hear of any retrenchment of their power or privileges. "Let us remain as we are, or let us exist no longer," was their reply. The Parliament, the people, the minister, and the mistress renewed their clamors. The Parliament decreed that the constitution of the Society was an encroachment on the royal authority, and the King was obliged to yield. The members of the Society were forbidden to wear the Jesuit habit, or to enjoy any clerical office or dignity; their colleges were closed, their Order was dissolved, and in 1764 they were expelled from the kingdom.

Embarrassments of the Jesuits.

Their expulsion and suppression.

Through the intrigues of the Duc de Choiseul, the Jesuits in 1767 were also expelled from Portugal and Spain. Soon after this, at the instigation of the ambassadors by whom his election had been secured, Pope Gangenelli suppressed the Order. Sixty-nine colleges were closed, their missions were broken up, their churches given to their rivals, and twenty-two thousand priests were left, without organization, wealth, or power. They had their revenge. Ganganelli died by slow poison, and the expelled priests found a refuge in Prussia,

Ch. 20 Frederic having by that time begun to perceive the revolutionary character of the new philosophers.

A. D. 1767 to 1774.

It is impossible to avoid being struck by the suicidal character of the measures, which all connected with the Court, during this reign, instigated or encouraged. Whoever pretended to give his aid to the monarchy helped to subvert it by the very measures and principles he proposed. The Duke of Orleans, when he patronized Law, gave a shock to the whole economical system of the old *régime*. And when this Scotch financier said to the powerful aristocracy around him, "Silver is only to you the means of circulation; beyond this it belongs to the country;" he announced the ruin of the glebe, and the fall of feudal prejudices.

The bankruptcies which followed the bursting of his bubble weakened the charm of the word *honor*, on which was based the stability of the throne. The courtiers, when they blazed in jewels, and in all the costly ornaments of their time, gave employment and importance to a host of shopkeepers, who grew rich as those who patronized them grew poor. The Court, when it encouraged their extravagance, raised up a new aristocracy, into whose hands the chateaux of the ancient nobles fell. The philosophers who dined at the table of the King and his mistresses, taught the prosperous middle class a knowledge of their rights, as well as inflamed their social ambition. In their dingy back rooms they discussed the theories of the new apostles. Even the improvements of Paris, such as the erection of theatres and operas, became nurseries of future clubs, and poisoned wells of popular education; while the ruin of the Jesuits—the grand stroke of the Duc de Choiseul, deprived the press of its most watchful spies, and literature of its most jealous guardians.

The growth of the people.

In like manner, when the grand seigneurs and noble dames of that aristocratic age wept over the sorrows of the "New Heloise," or craved that imaginary state of untutored innocence which Rousseau so morbidly described; or admired the brilliant generalization of laws which Montesquieu had pen-

The seeds of revolution.

ned; or laughed at the envenomed words of Voltaire; or quoted the atheistic doctrines of D'Alembert and Diderot, or enthusiastically discussed the economical theories of Du Quesnay and old Marquis Mirabeau,—that stern father of him who, both in his intellectual power and moral deformity, was alike the exponent and product of the French Revolution; they little dreamed that these new expounders of humanity would bring forth the Brissots, the Condorcets, the Marats, the Dantons, and the Robespierres of the next generation. Ch. 20 A. D. 1774.

Perhaps no one more clearly perceived the tendencies of the times than the King himself, with all his Sardanapalian effeminacy; but he had not the courage to face them. Seeing the danger, but feeling his impotence, he exclaimed to his courtiers, "Apres moi, le deluge." The latter days of such a man were of course melancholy. A languor, from which only his mistresses could momentarily rouse him, oppressed his life. Deaf, incapable of being aroused, worn out with infirmities, perhaps stung with remorse, he dragged out his sixty-fourth year, and at last, in the year 1774, died of the small-pox, which he caught in one of his infamous visits to the Parc au Cerfs. His loathsome remains were hastily huddled into a carriage, and deposited in the vaults of St. Denis. Insight of the King. His death.

REFERENCES.—"Louis XV. et la Societé du XVIII. Siecle," par M. Capefigue; "Histoire Philosophique du Regne de Louis XV.," par de Toqueville; "Mémoires Secrets" de Saint Simon; "Anecdotes de la Cour de France, pendant la favour de Madame de Pompadour." But for a general view of the reign of Louis XV., see the histories of Lacretelle, Voltaire, and Crowe. The scheme of Law is best explained in Smyth's "Lectures," and Anderson's "History of Commerce." The struggles between the King and the Parliament of Paris are tolerably described in the "History of Adolphus." For a view of the Jansenist Controversy, see Du Pin's "Ecclesiastical History;" Ranke's "History of the Popes;" Pascal's "Provincial Letters;" and Stephen's article in the "Edinburgh Review," on the Port Royalists. The fall of the Jesuits has been admirably treated by Quinet. For the manners of the court of Louis XV., the numerous memoirs and letters, which were written during the period, may be consulted.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE COLONIAL WARS BETWEEN ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

Ch. 21 A. D. 1688. DURING the administration of Sir Robert Walpole, the English colonies in America, and the East India Company's settlements, began to attract great attention, and to be regarded as of considerable political importance. A very brief sketch of the history and growth of these possessions is all that can be given.

English colonies. In 1688, the American colonies, of which there were twelve, contained about two hundred thousand inhabitants, and all of these were Protestants; all cherished the principles of civil and religious liberty, and sought, by industry, frugality, and patience, to secure independence and prosperity.

But the shores of North America were not colonized merely by the English and Dutch. On the banks of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi, another body of colonists arrived, and introduced other customs and different institutions.

French settlements. Within seven years from the discovery of the continent, the fisheries of Newfoundland were known to French adventurers. The St. Lawrence was explored in 1506, and in 1688, Quebec was settled by Champlain, who aimed at the glory of founding a state. In 1627 he succeeded in establishing the authority of the French on the banks of the St. Lawrence.

In 1688, England possessed those colonies which border on the Atlantic Ocean, from Maine to Georgia. The French, on the other hand, possessed Nova Scotia, Canada, Louisiana, and the countries bordering on the Mississippi and its branches, from the Gulf of Mexico to Lake Superior, as well as the territories around the great lakes.

A mutual jealousy, as was to be expected, sprung up between France and England respecting their colonial possessions. Both kingdoms aimed at the sovereignty of North America. The French were entitled perhaps, by right of discovery, to the greater extent of territory; but their colonies were unequal to those of the English in respect to numbers, and still more so in moral elevation and intellectual culture.

Colonial jealousy.

But Louis XIV., then in the height of his power, meditated the complete subjection of the English settlements. The French allied themselves with the Indians, and savage wars were the result. The Mohawks and other tribes, encouraged by the French, committed fearful massacres at Deerfield and Haverhill, and the English settlers were kept in a state of constant alarm and fear. By the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, the colonists obtained peace and considerable accession of territory. In 1719, John Law proposed his celebrated financial scheme to the Prince Regent of France, when the Mississippi Company was chartered, and Louisiana colonized.

Growth of the colonies.

Meanwhile the English colonies advanced in wealth, numbers, and political importance, and, as we have already said, began to attract the notice of Government. Sir Robert Walpole was solicited, during his administration, to tax the colonies; but he rejected the proposal. He encouraged trade to the utmost, and tribute was only levied through the consumption of British manufactures. But restrictions were subsequently imposed on colonial enterprise, which led to collisions between the colonies and the mother country. The Southern colonies were on the whole more favored than the Northern, but all of them were regarded simply as instruments for promoting the peculiar interests of Great Britain. Other subjects of dispute also arose; but, in spite of all, the settlements made rapid strides. There was a general diffusion of knowledge, the laws were well observed, and the ministers of religion were an honor to their sacred calling. The earth was subdued, and replenished with a hardy and religious set of men. Sentiments of patriotism and independence were ardently cherished.

Their political education.

Ch. 21 The people were trained to protect themselves; and, in their town meetings, learned to discuss political questions, and to understand political rights.

A. D. 1719 to 1745.

Ecclesiastical controversies sometimes disturbed the peace of parishes and communities, but did not retard the general prosperity. Some great lights now appeared. David Brainerd, as early as 1742, performed labors of disinterestedness and enlightened piety, which have never been surpassed, and rarely equalled. Jonathan Edwards had also then stamped his genius on the whole character of New England theology, and won the highest honors as a metaphysician from European admirers. His treatise on the "Freedom of the Will" has secured the praises of philosophers and divines of all parties, from Hume to Chalmers, and can "never be attentively perused without a sentiment of admiration at the strength and stretch of the human understanding." Benjamin Franklin had not indeed, at this early epoch, distinguished himself for philosophical discoveries; but he had attracted attention as the editor of a newspaper, in which he fearlessly defended freedom of speech and the rights of the people. But greater than Franklin, greater than any hero which modern history has commemorated, was that young Virginian planter, who was soon after to be seen watching, with intense solicitude, the interests and glory of his country, and preparing himself for that great conflict which has given him immortality.

Their great men.

The growth of the colonies, and their importance in the eyes of Europeans, had now provoked the jealousy of the two leading powers of Europe, and the colonial struggle between England and France began.

The French claimed the right of erecting a chain of fortresses along the Ohio and the Mississippi, with a view to connect Canada with Louisiana, obtain a monopoly of the fur trade with the Indians, and secure the possession of the finest part of the American continent. But these designs were displeasing to the English colonists, who had already extended their settlements far into the interior. The English

French fortifications.

ministry was also indignant at these movements, by which the colonies were completely surrounded by military posts.

It was to protest against the erection of these fortresses that ten years later (1755) George Washington, then twenty-three years of age, was sent by the colony of Virginia to the banks of the Ohio. That journey through the trackless wilderness, attended only by one person, in no slight degree marked him out, and prepared him for his subsequent career.

George Washington.

While the disputes about the forts were carried on between the cabinets of France and England, the French prosecuted their encroachments in America with great boldness, which doubtless hastened the rupture between the two countries. Orders were sent to the colonies to drive the French from their usurpations in Nova Scotia, and from their fortified posts upon the Ohio. Governor Shirley, of the Massachusetts colony, hearing from some prisoners of war the condition of Louisburg, the strongest fortress, next to Quebec, in North America, resolved to capture it, and the general court voted supplies. All the New England colonies sent volunteers, and the united forces, amounting to about four thousand men, were put under the command of William Pepperell, a merchant of Portsmouth, in New Hampshire. The men were chiefly fishermen, entirely inexperienced in the art of war, and yet, aided by an English fleet, they succeeded in taking Louisburg, in 1745, after a siege of three months. But this great achievement did not lead immediately to the conquest of Canada, as it was not followed up by vigorous measures.

Fall of Louisburg.

In 1755, General Braddock was sent to America, to prosecute the war on a larger scale. He had in view, chiefly, the destruction of the line of fortresses which the French had erected between Canada and Louisiana. The colonies cooperated with the mother country, and three expeditions were planned, one to attack Fort Du Quesne, now Pittsburg; a second to attack Fort Niagara; and the third, Crown Point, on Lake Champlain.

The expedition against Fort Du Quesne was a memorable

Ch. 21 failure, and Braddock himself was killed in an action against the French and Indians. The other two expeditions also failed, chiefly from the want of union between the governors and the provincial assemblies. The colonists, eager as they were for liberty, were not desirous of shedding their blood for the aggrandizement of England.

A. D. 1755 to 1759.

The failure of these expeditions contributed to make the English ministers unpopular; and when Pitt succeeded the Duke of Newcastle, the war was prosecuted with greater vigor. He planned three new expeditions, one against Louisburg, which had been surrendered to the French, a second against Ticonderoga, and a third against Fort Du Quesne, 1758.

New expeditions.

Louisburg was reduced by General Amherst, though only with a force of fourteen thousand men. Fort Du Quesne was abandoned. Ticonderoga was not taken. But the campaign of 1759 was attended with greater results. General Wolfe, who had distinguished himself at the siege of Louisburg, had orders to ascend the St. Lawrence, and capture Quebec. He succeeded in his work, but died in the moment of victory, much lamented by the nation. The capture of Quebec, defended by nine thousand French troops, was followed by the complete subjugation of Canada, and the ruin of the French cause in America. France lost for ever all hopes of ascendency in the western world.

Fall of Quebec.

But the colonial jealousy between England and France extended also to India. As late as 1742, the territories of the English in India scarcely extended beyond the precincts of the town occupied by the East India Company's servants. The first English settlement of importance was on the Island of Java; but in 1658, a grant of land was obtained on the Coromandel coast, near Madras, where was erected the strong fortress of St. George. In 1668, the Island of Bombay was ceded by the crown of Portugal to Charles II., and made the capital of the British settlements in India. In 1698, the English had a settlement on the Hooghly, which afterwards became the metropolis of British power.

English in India.

But the Dutch, and Portuguese, and French had also colonies in India for purposes of trade. Louis XIV. established a company, in imitation of the English, which sought a settlement on the Hooghly. The French company had also built a fort on the coast of the Carnatic, about eighty miles south of Madras, called Pondicherry, and had colonized two fertile islands in the Indian Ocean, which they called the Isle of France and the Isle of Bourbon. The possessions of the French were controlled by two presidencies, one on the Isle of France, and the other at Pondicherry.

Hostilities in India.

When the war broke out between England and France, in 1744, these French presidencies were ruled by two men of superior genius,—La Bourdonnais and Dupleix,—both of them men of great experience in Indian affairs, and both devoted to the interests of the company, so far as their own personal ambition would permit. When Commodore Burnet, with an English squadron, was sent into the Indian seas, La Bourdonnais succeeded in fitting out an expedition to oppose it, and even contemplated the capture of Madras. No decisive action was fought at sea; but the French governor succeeded in taking Madras. This success displeased the Nabob of the Carnatic, and he sent a letter to Dupleix, and complained of the aggression of his countrymen in attacking a place under his protection. Dupleix, envious of the fame of La Bourdonnais, and not pleased with the terms of capitulation, as being too favorable to the English, claimed the right of annulling the conquest, since Madras, when taken, would fall under his own presidency.

La Bourdonnais.

The contentions between these two Frenchmen prevented La Bourdonnais from following up the advantage of his victory, and he failed in his attempts to engage the English fleet. He returned to France, and died from the effects of an unjust imprisonment in the Bastile.

Dupleix, after the departure of La Bourdonnais, brought the principal inhabitants of Madras to Pondicherry. But some of them contrived to escape. Among them was the

Ch. 21 celebrated Clive, then a clerk in a mercantile house. In the year 1746, he entered into the Company's service as an ensign, and soon found occasion to distinguish himself.

A. D. 1748 to 1751.

But Dupleix, master of Madras, now formed the scheme of founding an Indian empire, and of expelling the English from the Carnatic. India was in a state to favor his enterprises. The empire of the Great Mogul, whose capital was Delhi, was tottering from decay. It had been, in the sixteenth century, the most powerful empire in the world. The magnificence of its palaces then astonished even Europeans, accustomed to the splendor of Paris and Versailles. Its viceroys ruled over provinces larger and richer than either France or England.

Schemes of Dupleix.

The Nabob of Arcot was one of these princes. He hated the French, and befriended the English. On the death of this Viceroy of the Deccan, in 1748, to whom he was subject, Dupleix conceived his gigantic scheme of conquest. To the throne of this Viceroy there were several claimants, two of whom applied to the French for assistance. This was what the Frenchman desired, and he allied himself with the pretenders. With the assistance of the French, Mirzappa Juy obtained the Viceroyalty. Dupleix was splendidly rewarded, was intrusted with the command of seven thousand Indian cavalry, and received a present of two hundred thousand pounds.

The only place on the Carnatic which remained in possession of the rightful Viceroy was Trichinopoly, and this was soon invested by the French and Indian forces.

Victories of Clive.

To raise this siege, and so turn the tide of French conquest, became the object of Clive, then twenty-five years of age. He represented to his superior the importance of this post, and also of striking a decisive blow. He suggested the plan of an attack on Arcot itself, the residence of the Nabob. His project was approved, and he was placed at the head of a force of three hundred sepoys and two hundred Englishmen. The city was taken by surprise, and its capture induced the Nabob to relinquish the siege of Trichinopoly in order to retake his capital.

Ch. 21

A. D. 1751 to 1756.

But Clive so intrenched his followers, that they successfully defended the place, after exhibiting prodigies of valor. The fortune of war turned to the side of the gallant Englishman, and Dupleix, who was no general, retreated before the victors. Clive obtained the command of Fort St. David, an important fortress near Madras, and soon controlled the Carnatic.

English settlements plundered.

About this time, the settlements on the Hooghly were plundered by Surajah Dowlah, Viceroy of Bengal. Bengal was the most fertile and populous province of the empire of the Great Mogul. It was watered by the Ganges, the sacred river of India, and its cities were surprisingly rich. Its capital was Moorshedabad, a city nearly as large as London; and here the young Viceroy lived in luxury and effeminacy, and indulged in every species of cruelty and folly. He hated the English who were in Calcutta, and longed to plunder them. He accordingly, in 1756, seized the infant city, and shut up one hundred and forty of the colonists in a dungeon of the fort, a room twenty feet by fourteen, with only two small windows; and, in a few hours, one hundred and seventeen died. The horrors of that night have been awfully depicted by Macaulay in his Essay on Clive, and the place of torment, called the *Black Hole of Calcutta*, is synonymous with suffering and misery.

Black Hole of Calcutta.

Clive resolved to avenge this act of cruelty. An expedition was fitted out at Madras to punish the inhuman Nabob, consisting of nine hundred Europeans and fifteen hundred sepoys. It was a small force, but it proved sufficient. Calcutta was recovered, and the army of the Nabob was routed. Clive intrigued with the enemies of the despot in his own city; and, by means of unparalleled treachery, dissimulation, art, and violence, Surajah Dowlah was deposed, and Meer Jaffier, one of the conspirators, was made Nabob in his place. In return for the services of Clive, the new Viceroy splendidly rewarded him. A hundred boats conveyed the treasures of Bengal down the river to Calcutta. Clive himself, who had walked between heaps of gold and silver, crowned with dia-

Greatness of Clive.

Ch. 21 monds and rubies, condescended to receive a present of three hundred thousand pounds. His moderation has been commended by his biographers in not asking for a million.

A. D. 1757 to 1760.

The elevation of Meer Jaffier was, of course, displeasing to the imbecile ruler of India, and a large army was sent to dethrone him. The Nabob appealed, in his necessity, to the English; and, with the powerful assistance of the Europeans, the forces of the successor of the great Aurungzebe were signally routed. But the great sums he was obliged to bestow on his allies, and the encroaching spirit which they manifested, changed his friendship into enmity. He plotted with the Dutch and the French to overturn the power of the English. Clive divined his object, and, in 1760, Meer Jaffier was deposed in his turn. The Viceroy of Bengal was but the tool of his English protectors, and British power was firmly planted in the centre of India.

Growth of the English power.

Calcutta was now the capital of a great empire; and the East India Company, a mere assemblage of merchants, became the rulers and disposers of provinces which Alexander had coveted in vain. The career of Hastings, and the final conquest of India, belong to subsequent chapters, and to a time when East India affairs became mixed up with the contentions of rival statesmen, in the days of the younger Pitt. Before we consider these, we must again turn to the continental States, and review the seven years' war which Frederic had provoked.

REFERENCES.—Bancroft's "History of the United States;" Elphinstone's and Mills' "India;" Malcolm's "Life of Clive," and Macaulay's "Essay."

CHAPTER XXII.

FREDERIC THE GREAT AND THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

Ch. 22

A. D. 1740 to 1786.

FREDERIC II. of Prussia has won a name which at once extorts admiration, and calls forth aversion. War was his absorbing passion and his highest glory. Peter the Great was half a barbarian, and Charles XII. half a madman; but Frederic was neither barbarous nor wild. Louis XIV. plunged his nation into war from sheer egotism, and William III. fought for the great cause of civil and religious liberty; but Frederic indulged in that awful luxury for the excitement which war produced, and from a restless ambition of taking what was not his own.

Frederic the Great.

He was born in the royal palace of Berlin, in 1712—ten years after Prussia had become a kingdom, and in the lifetime of his grandfather, Frederic I. The fortunes of his family were made by his great-grandfather, called the *Great Elector*, of the house of Hohenzollern. He could not make Brandenburg a fertile province; so he turned it into a military state. He was wise, benignant, and universally beloved.

His ancestors.

But few of the amiable qualities of the Elector were inherited by his great-grandson. Frederic II. resembled more his whimsical and tyrannical father, Frederic William, who beat his children without a cause, and sent his subjects to prison from mere caprice. When his ambassador, in London, was allowed only one thousand pounds a year, he gave a bounty of thirteen hundred pounds to a tall Irishman, to join his famous body guard, a regiment of men who were all above six feet high. He would kick women in the streets, abuse

Frederic William.

Ch. 22 clergymen for looking on the soldiers, and insulted his son's tutor for teaching him Latin. But, abating his coarseness, his
A. D. 1740. brutality, and his cruelty, he was a Christian after his own notions. He had respect for the institutions of religion, denounced all amusements as sinful, and read a sermon aloud, every afternoon, to his family.

Tyranny of Frederic William.

His son perceived his inconsistencies, and grew up an infidel. There was no sympathy between them; the father hated the heir of his house and throne. The young prince was kept on bread and water; his most moderate wishes were disregarded; he was surrounded with spies; he was cruelly beaten and imprisoned, and abused as a monster and a heathen. The cruel treatment which he received induced him to fly; his flight was discovered; he was brought back to Berlin, condemned to death as a deserter, and only saved from the fate of a malefactor by the intercession of half the crowned heads of Europe. A hollow reconciliation was effected; and the prince was permitted, at last, to retire to one of the royal palaces, where he amused himself with books, billiards, balls, and banquets. He opened a correspondence with Voltaire, and became an ardent admirer of his opinions.

In 1740 the old King died, and Frederic II. mounted an absolute throne. He found a well filled treasury, and a splendidly disciplined army. His customary pleasures were abandoned, and dreams of glory filled his ambitious soul.

Accession of Frederic II.

Scarcely was he seated on his throne, before military aggrandizement became the animating principle of his life. His first war was the conquest, in 1741, of Silesia, one of the richest provinces of the Austrian empire. It belonged to Maria Theresa, Queen of Hungary and Bohemia, daughter of the late Emperor of Germany, whose succession was guaranteed by virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction—a law which the Emperor Charles passed respecting his daughter's claim, and which was recognized by the old King of Prussia, and ratified by all the leading powers of Europe. Without a declaration of war, without complaints, without a cause, almost without a pretext,

from the mere lust of dominion, Frederic commenced hostilities, in the depth of winter, when invasion was unexpected, and when the garrisons were defenceless. Without a battle, one of the oldest provinces of Austria was seized, and the royal robber returned in triumph to his capital.

His ambition.

Such an outrage astonished and alarmed the whole civilized world, and Europe armed itself to assist the unfortunate Queen, whose empire was threatened with complete dismemberment. Frederic was alarmed, and in 1742 a hollow peace was made. But, in two years, the war again broke out, closing with the Treaty of Dresden, in 1745. To recover Silesia and to humble Frederic was, however, still the aim of Maria Theresa; and at last she succeeded in securing the co-operation of Russia, France, Sweden, and Saxony. No one now doubted of the ruin of the house of Brandenburg. Six hundred thousand men were at length arrayed to crush an unprincipled king, who had trampled on all the laws of nations and on all the principles of justice.

The Seven Years War.

The resistance of Frederic to these immense forces (1756—1763) constitutes the celebrated *Seven Years' War*, the most gigantic which Europe had seen since the Reformation. The contest began during the latter years of George II., and was connected with the colonial wars of Great Britain and France. It called out all the energies of the elder Pitt, and placed Great Britain in a high position among the nations.

Not willingly undertaken.

Frederic was not slow to perceive the extent of his danger; and would gladly have been relieved from the contest; but it was inevitable. Great and overwhelming odds were arrayed against him. Still he had important advantages. He was absolute master of his army, of his treasury, and of his territories. The lives and property of his subjects were at his disposal; these subjects were brave and loyal; he was popular with the people, and was sustained by the enthusiasm of the nation; his army was well disciplined; he had no sea coast to defend, and he could concentrate all his forces upon any point he pleased, in a short time.

Ch. 22 His only hope was in energetic measures. He therefore invaded Saxony, at once, with sixty thousand men. His aim
A. D. 1756. was to seize the State papers at Dresden, which contained the proofs of the confederation. These were found and published, which showed that now, at least, he acted on the defensive.

The campaign of 1756 opened favourably, and the first great battle was won by the Prussians. By the victory of Lowositz, Frederic got possession of Saxony.

Embarrassments of Frederic. The campaign of 1757 was commenced under great solicitude. Five hundred thousand men were arrayed against two hundred thousand. Near Prague, Frederic obtained a victory, but lost twelve thousand men. He then invested Prague. General Daun, with a superior army, advanced to its relief. Another bloody battle was fought, and lost by the Prussian King. This seemed to be a fatal stroke. At the outset, as it were, of the war, he had received a check. The confidence of his soldiers was weakened. Malevolent sarcasm pointed out mistakes. The siege of Prague was raised, and Bohemia was abandoned. A French army, at the same time, invaded Germany; and Frederic heard also of the death of his mother, the only person whom he loved. His spirits fell, and he became haggard and miserable.

His dominions were now assailed by a French, a Swedish, and a Russian army. His capital was in the hands of the Croatians, and he was opposed by superior Austrian forces. No wonder that he was oppressed with melancholy, and saw before him the ruin of his house. On one thing, however, he was resolved—never to be taken alive. So he provided himself with poison, which he always carried about his person.

His heroism The heroic career of Frederic dates from this hour of misfortune and trial. Indeed, the heroism of all great men commences in perplexity, difficulty, and danger. Success is obtained only through struggle. Frederic's career is a splendid example of that power which rises above danger, and extricates a man from difficulties when his cause is desperate.

The King of Prussia first marched against the French.

The two armies met at Rossbach. The number of the French was double that of the Prussians; but the Prussians were better disciplined, and were commanded by an abler general. The French felt secure of victory; but they were defeated: seven thousand men were taken prisoners, together with their guns, ammunition, parrots, hair powder, and pomatum. The victory of Rossbach won for Frederic a great name, and diffused universal joy among the English and Prussians. Battle of Rossbach.

After a brief rest, he turned his face towards Silesia, which had again fallen into the hands of the Austrians. It was for the sake of gaining this province that he had provoked the hostilities of Europe; and pride, as well as interest, induced him to bend all his energies to regain it. Prince Charles of Lorraine commanded the forces of Maria Theresa, which numbered eighty thousand men. Frederic could only array against him an army of thirty thousand. And yet, in spite of the disparity of forces, and his desperate condition, he resolved to attack the enemy. His generals remonstrated; but the only answer they obtained was full permission to retire, if they pleased. None were found to shun the danger. Frederic knew how to excite the enthusiasm of his troops; he both encouraged and threatened them. He declared that any cavalry regiment which did not, on being ordered, burst impetuously on the foe, should, after the battle, be dismounted, and converted into a garrison regiment. But he had no reason to complain. Disparity of numbers.

On the 5th of December, 1757, the day of the ever-memorable battle of Leuthen, he selected an officer with fifty men as his body-guard. "I shall," said he, "expose myself much today; you are not to leave me for an instant; if I fall, cover me quickly with a mantle, place me in a waggon, and tell the fact to no one. The battle cannot be avoided, and must be won." He obtained a glorious victory. According to Napoleon, the battle was a masterpiece on the part of the victor, and placed him in the first rank of generals. Twenty thousand Austrians were either killed or taken. Breslau opened Battle of Leuthen.

Ch. 22 its gates to the Prussians, and Silesia was reconquered. The King's fame filled the world. Pictures of him were hung in almost every house. The enthusiasm of Germany was not surpassed by that of England. London was illuminated; and an annual subsidy of seven hundred thousand pounds was granted by the Government. It was now evident that the Germans were really a match for the French, who had hitherto been deemed invincible.

A. D. 1758.

Battle of Zorndorff.

Early in the spring of 1758, Frederic was ready for a new campaign, which was soon signalized by a great victory over the Russians, at Zorndorff. It was as brilliant and decisive as the battles of Rossbach and Leuthen. A force of thirty-two thousand men defeated an army of fifty-two thousand. Twenty-two thousand Russians lay dead on the field. This victory placed Frederic at the zenith of military fame. In less than a year, he had defeated three great armies. In less than a year, and when nearly driven to despair, when his cause seemed hopeless, and his enemies were rejoicing in their strength, he successively triumphed over the French, the Austrians, and the Russians, the three most powerful nations on the continent of Europe. And his moderation after victory was as marked as his self-reliance after defeat. At this period, he stood out, to the wondering and admiring eyes of the world, as the greatest general of modern times.

Success of Frederic.

The remainder of the campaign of 1758 was spent in driving the Austrians from Silesia, and in capturing Dresden. No capital in Europe has suffered more from war than this polished city. It has often been besieged and taken, but the victors have always spared its famous picture gallery, the finest collection of the works of the old masters, probably, in existence.

Frederic was now assailed by a new enemy, Pope Benedict XIV., who sent a consecrated sword, a hat of crimson velvet, and a dove of pearls,—"the mystic symbol of the Divine Comforter,"—to Marshal Daun, the ablest of the Austrian generals, and the conqueror at Kolin and Hockirchen. It was the rarest of the Papal gifts, and had been only bestowed, in

the course of six centuries, on Godfrey of Bouillon, by Urban II., when he took Jerusalem; on Alva, after his massacres in Holland; and on Sobieski, after his deliverance of Vienna, when besieged by the Turks. It had never been conferred, except for the defence of the "Holy Catholic Church." But this greatest of papal gifts made no impression on an age which read Montesquieu and Voltaire. A flood of satirical pamphlets inundated Christendom, and the world laughed at the impotent weapons which had once been thunderbolts in the hands of Hildebrand or Innocent III.

Reverses of Frederic.

The fourth year of the war proved disastrous to Frederic. He did not lose military reputation, but he lost his cities and armies. The Austrians invaded Saxony, and menaced Silesia, while the Russians gained a victory over the Prussians at Kunersdorf, and killed eighteen thousand men. This great victory nearly drove Frederic to despair. He rallied, but was again defeated in three disastrous battles. In his distress, he fed his troops on potatoes and rye bread, took from the peasant his last horse, debased his coin, and left his civil functionaries unpaid.

His critical situation.

The campaign of 1760 was, at first, unfavorable to the Prussians. Frederic had only ninety thousand men, and his enemies had two hundred thousand, in the field. He was therefore obliged to maintain the defensive. But still disasters thickened. General Loudon obtained a great victory over his general, Fouqué, in Silesia. Instead, however, of being discouraged by this new defeat, he formed the extraordinary resolution of again wresting Dresden from the hands of the Austrians. He pretended, therefore, to retreat from Saxony, and to advance towards Silesia. General Daun was deceived, and decoyed from Saxony in pursuit of him. As soon as Frederic had retired a considerable distance from Dresden, he returned, and bombarded it. But he did not succeed in taking it, and was forced to retreat to Silesia. It was there his good fortune to gain a victory over the Austrians, and so to prevent their junction with the Russians. At Torgau, he again defeated an

Ch. 22 army of sixty-four thousand of the enemy, with a force of only forty-four thousand. This closed the campaign, and the position of the parties was nearly the same as at the commencement of it. The heart of Frederic was now full of bitterness; he saw that his enemies were resolved to crush him. He should have remembered that he had provoked their implacable resentment, by the commission of a great crime.

A. D. 1760 to 1762.

Impending ruin.

His resources were now nearly exhausted, and he began to look around, in vain, for a new supply of men, horses, and provisions. The circle which his enemies had drawn around him was obviously becoming smaller. In a little while, to all appearance, he would be overwhelmed by superior forces.

Under these circumstances, the campaign in 1761 was opened; but no event of importance occurred until nearly the close of the year. On the whole it was disastrous to Prussia. Half of Silesia was taken by the Austrians, and the Russian generals were successful in Pomerania. A still greater misfortune happened to Frederic in consequence of the resignation of Pitt, who had always been his firmest ally, and had granted him large subsidies, when he was most in need of them. On the retirement of the English minister, these subsidies were withdrawn. This defection filled the mind of the King with implacable hatred, and he could not bear to hear the name of England mentioned.

Defection of England.

A great and unexpected change now came over his fortunes. On the 5th of January, 1762, Elizabeth, Empress of Russia, died; and her successor, Peter III., who was an admirer of Frederic, and even a personal friend, returned the Prussian prisoners, withdrew his troops from the Prussian territories, dressed himself in a Prussian uniform, and wore the black eagle of Prussia on his breast. He even sent fifteen thousand troops to reinforce the army of the Prussian King.

England and France had long been wearied of this war, and formed a separate treaty for themselves. Prussia and Austria were therefore left to combat each other. If Austria, assisted by France and Russia, could not regain Silesia and ruin Prus-

sia, it certainly was not strong enough to conquer Frederic single-handed. The proud Maria Theresa was therefore compelled to make peace with the man who had seized one of the finest provinces of the Austrian Empire. In February, 1763, the treaty of Hubertsburg was signed, by which Frederic retained his spoil. In comparison with the other belligerent parties, he was the gainer. But no acquisition of territory could compensate for those seven years of toil, expense, and death. He entered his capital in triumph; but he beheld everywhere the melancholy marks of devastation and suffering. The fields were untilled, the houses had been sacked, the population had declined, and famine and disease had spread a funereal shade over the dwellings of the poor. He had escaped death, but one-sixth of the whole male population of Prussia had been killed, and untold millions of property had been destroyed. In some districts, no laborers but women were seen in the fields. Fifteen thousand houses had been burnt in his own capital.

Ch. 22 A. D. 1763. Peace of Hubertsburg.

It is very remarkable that no national debt was incurred by the King of Prussia, in spite of all his necessities. In the worst of times he always had a year's revenue in advance; and, at the close of the war, to show the world that he was not then impoverished, he built a splendid palace at Potsdam, which nearly equalled the magnificence of Versailles.

Distress of the kingdom.

But he did all in his power to alleviate the distress which his wars had caused. Silesia received three millions of thalers, and Pomerania two millions. Fourteen thousand houses were rebuilt; treasury notes, which had depreciated, were redeemed; officers who had distinguished themselves were rewarded; and the widows and children of those who had fallen were pensioned.

The possession of Silesia did not, indeed, compensate for the Seven Years' War; but the struggles which the brave Prussians made for their national independence, when assailed on all sides by powerful enemies, were not made in vain. Had they not been made, Prussia would have fallen in the scale of nations, and her people would have lost self-respect.

Effects of the war.

Ch. 22 A. D. 1764 to 1786.

After the peace of Hubertsburg, in 1763, Prussia, for a time, enjoyed repose, and the King devoted himself to the improvement of his country. But the army received his greatest consideration, a peace establishment of one hundred and sixty thousand men being maintained; an immense force for so small a kingdom, but deemed necessary in such unsettled times. Frederic amused himself in building palaces, in writing books, and in corresponding with literary friends. But schemes of ambition were, after all, paramount in his mind.

Partition of Poland.

The Seven Years' War had scarcely closed before the partition of Poland was contemplated. This act of wrong, the greatest political crime of the age,—was consummated in the year 1772, and the King of Prussia was chiefly responsible for it.

The Bavarian war was the next event of importance which occurred during the reign of Frederic. The Emperor of Germany formed a project for the dismemberment of the electorate of Bavaria. The liberties of the Germanic body were in danger, and Frederic came to the rescue. On this occasion, he was the opposer of lawless ambition. In 1778, he took the field with a powerful army; but no action ensued. The Austrian Court found it expedient to abandon the design, and the peace of Teschen prevented another fearful contest. The two last public acts of Frederic were the establishment, in 1785, of the Germanic Union for preserving the constitution of the Empire, and a treaty of amity and commerce, in 1786, with the United States of America.

The Germanic Union.

Death of Frederic.

He died on the 17th of August, 1786, in the seventy-fifth year of his age, and the forty-seventh of his reign. On the whole, he was one of the most remarkable men of his age, and had great influence on the condition of his country.

His distinguishing peculiarity was his admiration of, and devotion to, the military profession, which he unduly exalted. An ensign in his army ranked higher than a counsellor of legation, or a professor of philosophy. His ordinary mode of life was simple and unostentatious, and his favorite residence

was the palace of Sans Souci, at Potsdam. He was fond of music, and of the society of literary men; but he mortified them by his patronizing arrogance, and annoyed them by his practical jokes. His favorite literary companions were infidel philosophers, and Voltaire received from him marks of the highest distinction. But the king of letters could not live with the despot who solicited his society, and an implacable hatred succeeded to familiarity and friendship. The King was industrious, frugal, and vigilant. Nothing escaped his eye. He was probably the most indefatigable sovereign that ever existed.

His character.

But able and successful as he was as a ruler, he was one of those men for whom it is impossible to entertain a profound respect. He was cruel, selfish, and parsimonious. He was prodigal of the blood of his subjects, and ungenerous in his treatment of those who had sacrificed everything for his sake. He ruled by fear rather than by love. He introduced into every department of Government the precision of a rigid military discipline, and had no faith in any power but that of mechanical agencies. He quarrelled with his best friends, and seemed to enjoy the miseries he inflicted. He treated women with contempt, and despised Christianity. He made no efforts to disguise his unmitigated selfishness and heartless injustice. He had no loftiness of character, and no appreciation of elevated sentiment in others. He worshipped himself, and rewarded those only who advanced his ambitious designs.

Effects of his reign.

REFERENCES.—The "Posthumous Works of Frederic II.;" Gillies's "View of the Reign of Frederic II.;" Thiebault's "Mémoires de Frédéric le Grand;" Voltaire's "Idée du Roi de Prusse;" "Life of Baron Trenck;" Macaulay's "Essay on the Life and Times of Frederic the Great;" Coxe's "House of Austria."

CHAPTER XXIII.

MARIA THERESA AND CATHARINE II.

Ch. 23 — A. D. 1740 to 1780.

CONTEMPORANEOUS with Frederic the Great were Maria Theresa and Catharine II.—two Sovereigns who claim especial notice, as representing two mighty Empires. In alluding first to Maria Theresa, we must rapidly review the history of that great Empire over which she ruled.

Maria Theresa.

The power of Austria, at different times since the death of the Emperor Charles V., had threatened the liberties of Europe; and, to prevent her ascendency, the Kings of France, England, and Prussia, had expended the treasure and wasted the blood of their subjects.

By the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, at the close of the Thirty Years' War, the constitution of Germany was established upon a firm basis, and religious toleration was secured in all the States of the Empire. It was settled that no decree of the Diet should pass without a majority of suffrages, and that the Imperial Chamber and the Aulic Council should be composed of a due proportion of Catholics and Protestants. The Imperial Chamber was instituted by the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1495, in the Diet of Worms; it was a judicial tribunal, and the highest court of appeal. It consisted of seventeen judges nominated by the Emperor, and it took cognizance of Austrian affairs chiefly. The Aulic Council was also judicial, and was composed of eighteen persons; it attended chiefly to business connected with the Empire. By the treaty of Westphalia it was ordained that a perfect equality should be observed in the appointment of the members of these two important courts; but, in fact, twenty-four

Austria since the treaty of Westphalia.

Protestants and twenty-six Catholics were appointed to the Imperial Chamber. The various States had the right of presenting members, according to political importance. The Aulic Council was composed of six Protestants and twelve Catholics, and was a tribunal to settle difficulties between the various States of which Germany was composed. Ch. 23 A. D. 1740 to 1780.

These States were nearly independent of each other, but united under one common head. Each State had its own peculiar government, which was generally monarchical, and regulated its own coinage, police, and administration of justice. Each kingdom, electorate, principality, and imperial city included in the States of Germany, had the right to make war, form alliances, conclude peace, and send ambassadors to foreign Courts. The German States.

The Diet of the Empire consisted of representatives of each of the States, appointed by the princes themselves, and it took cognizance of matters of common interest, such as regulations respecting commerce, the licensing of books, and the military force which each State was required to furnish. Diet of the Empire.

The Emperor had power, in some respects, over all these States; but it was chiefly confined to his hereditary dominions. He could not exercise any despotic control over the various princes of the Empire; but, as hereditary Sovereign of Austria, Styria, Moravia, Bohemia, Hungary, and the Tyrol, he was the most powerful prince in Europe until the aggrandizement of Louis XIV.

Ferdinand III. was Emperor of Germany at the peace of Westphalia; but he did not long survive it. He died in 1657, and his son Leopold succeeded him as Sovereign of all the Austrian dominions. He had not then completed his eighteenth year, but was, nevertheless, five months after, elected Emperor of Germany by the Electoral Diet. Ferdinand III. and Leopold.

Great events occurred during the reign of Leopold I.—the Turkish war, the invasion of the Netherlands by Louis XIV., the heroic struggles of the Prince of Orange, the French invasion of the Palatinate, the accession of a Bourbon prince

Ch. 23 to the throne of Spain, the discontents of Hungary, and the victories of Marlborough and Eugene. Most of these have been already alluded to, especially in the chapter on Louis XIV., and, therefore, will not be further discussed.

A. D. 1740 to 1780.

The most important event connected with Austrian affairs, as distinct from those of France, England, and Holland, was the Hungarian war. Hungary was not a province of Austria, but a distinct State. In 1526, the crowns of the two kingdoms were united, like those of England and Hanover under George I. But the Hungarians were always impatient of the rule of the Emperor of Germany, and, in the space of a century, arose five times in defence of their liberties.

Hungarian revolution.

In 1667, one of these insurrections took place, occasioned by the aggressive policy and government of Leopold. So soon as the Emperor was aware of the conspiracy of his Hungarian subjects, he adopted vigorous measures, quartered thirty thousand additional troops in Hungary, loaded the people with taxes, occupied the principal fortresses, banished the chiefs, and changed the constitution of the country. He also attempted to suppress Protestantism, and committed all the excesses of military despotism. These accumulated oppressions drove a brave but turbulent people to despair, and both Catholics and Protestants united for their common safety. The insurgents were assisted by the Prince of Transylvania, and were supplied with money and provisions by the French. They also found a noble defender in Emeric Tekeli, a young Hungarian noble, who hated Austria as intensely as Hannibal hated Rome, and who, at the head of twenty thousand men, defended his country against the Emperor.

Emeric Tekeli.

Tekeli, however, was gradually insulated from those who had formed the great support of his cause, and, in consequence of jealousies which Leopold had fomented between him and the Turks, was arrested, and sent in chains to Constantinople. New victories followed the imperial army, and Leopold succeeded in making the crown of Hungary, hitherto elective, hereditary in his family. He then insti-

tuted in the conquered country a horrible inquisitorial tribunal, and perpetrated cruelties which scarcely find a parallel in the proscriptions of Marius and Sylla. Ch. 23 A. D. 1740 to 1780.

When the Hungarian difficulties were settled, Leopold had more leisure to prosecute his war with the Turks, in which he gained signal successes. The Ottoman Porte was humbled and crippled, and a great source of discontent to the Christian powers of Europe was removed. By the peace of Carlovitz in 1697, Leopold secured Hungary and Sclavonia, which had been so long occupied by the Turks, and consolidated his empire by the acquisition of Transylvania.

Death of Leopold.

Leopold I. lived only to witness the splendid victories of Marlborough and Eugene, by which the power of his great rival, Louis, was effectually reduced. He died in 1705, having reigned forty-six years; the longest reign in the Austrian annals, except that of Frederic III. He was a man of great private virtues; pure in his morals; a good father, and a kind master; unbounded in his charities, and cultivated in his tastes. But he was reserved, cold, and phlegmatic. His jealousy of Sobieski was unworthy of his position, and his severities in Hungary made him the object of execration.

Accession of Joseph.

Leopold was succeeded by his eldest son, Joseph, a man of energetic and aspiring spirit. His reign is memorable for the continuation of the great War of the Spanish Succession, signalized by the victories of Marlborough and Eugene, the humiliation of the French, and the career of Charles XII. of Sweden. He also restored Bohemia to its electoral rights; rewarded the Elector Palatine with the honors and territories wrested from his family by the Thirty Years' War; and confirmed the House of Hanover in the possession of the ninth electorate. He had nearly restored tranquillity to his country, when, in the year 1711, he died of small-pox—a victim to the ignorance of his physicians. He was a lover and patron of the arts, and spoke several languages with elegance and fluency. But he had the usual faults of absolute

Ch. 23 princes; was prodigal in his expenditure, irascible in his temper, fond of pageantry, and enslaved by women.

A. D. 1740 to 1780.

He was succeeded by his brother, the Archduke Charles, under the title of Charles VI. Soon after his accession, the tranquillity of Europe was established by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, and Austria once more became the preponderating power. But Charles VI. was not capable of appreciating the greatness of his position. As he had no male issue, a solemn law, called the *Pragmatic Sanction*, was, in the year 1724, drawn up, according to which he transferred to his daughter, Maria Theresa, his vast hereditary possessions. He at first found great difficulty in securing the assent of the European powers to this law; but, in the end, effected his object. On his death, in 1740, Maria Theresa succeeded to all the dominions of the house of Austria.

Accession of Charles VI.

Accession of Maria Theresa.

No Princess ever ascended a throne under circumstances of greater peril, or in a situation which demanded greater energy and fortitude. Her army had dwindled to thirty thousand men; her treasury contained only one hundred thousand florins; a general scarcity of provisions distressed the people, and the vintage was cut off by the frost.

Under all these embarrassing circumstances, the Elector of Bavaria laid claim to her territory, and Frederic II. seized Silesia; the King of Sardinia made pretension to the Duchy of Milan; while the Kings of France, Spain, Poland, and Prussia, disputed her rights to the whole Austrian inheritance. The first notice which the Queen had of the seizure of Silesia was an insulting speech from the Prussian Ambassador. "I come," said he, "with safety for the House of Austria on the one hand, and the imperial crown for your Majesty on the other. The troops of my master are at the service of the Queen, and cannot fail of being acceptable at a time when she is in want of both. And as the King, my master, from the situation of his dominions, will be exposed to great danger from this alliance with the Queen of Hungary, it is hoped that, as an indemnification,

First war with Frederic II.

the Queen will not offer him less than the whole Duchy of Silesia."

The Queen was indignant at this royal villany, and at once prepared to resist. A great coalition was then formed to deprive her of the empire. Two French armies invaded Germany, and the Elector of Bavaria marched within eight miles of Vienna. Abandoned by her allies, the Queen, in 1741, fled to Hungary, her hereditary dominions, and threw herself on the generosity of her subjects. She invoked the States of the Diet; and, clad in deep mourning, with the crown of St. Stephen on her head, and a cimeter at her side, she traversed the hall in which the nobles were assembled, and addressed them, in the immortal language of Rome, respecting her wrongs and distresses. Youth, beauty, and rank in distress obtained their natural triumph. Her subjects responded to her call, a thousand swords leaped from their scabbards, and the old hall rang with the cry, "Moriamur pro nostro rege." Tears started from the eyes of the Queen, whom misfortune and insult could not bend, and these excited still more the enthusiasm of her subjects.

Appeal to her Hungarian subjects.

It was in defence of this injured Queen that the English Parliament voted supplies and raised armies. This was the war (1741–1745) which characterized the Pelham administration, and to which Walpole was opposed.

France no sooner formed an alliance with Prussia than the "balance of power" was disturbed, and England entered into the contest, more to oppose France than to assist Austria. The theatre of strife quickly changed from Germany to Holland, and the great battle of Fontenoy, fought in the spring of 1745, in which the Duke of Cumberland was routed by Marshal Saxe, was the most prominent event, and the only marked victory which attended the arms of the French during the reign of Louis XV.

Battle of Fontenoy.

Frederic II. contrived to keep the province he had seized; and by the treaty of Breslau, in 1742, Maria Theresa confirmed the King of Prussia in its possession. But the peace

Ch. 23 was only a truce, and a new coalition having been formed, the Queen made desperate efforts to recover the province she had lost. The victories of the Prussians, however, soon led to a second treaty, called the peace of Dresden. This was effected in 1745. Eleven years after, in 1756, the Seven Years' War commenced, when new combinations were formed, and England became the ally of Prussia. This war having already been described, in connection with the reign of Frederic, need not be further discussed. It was only closed by the exhaustion of all the parties engaged in it.

A. D. 1740 to 1780.

Seven Years' War.

In 1736 Maria Theresa was married to Francis Stephen, Grand Duke of Tuscany, and he, in 1745, was elected Emperor of Germany, under the title of *Francis I.* He died in 1763, soon after the peace of Hubertsburg was signed, and his son Joseph succeeded to the throne of the empire, acting as co-regent with Maria Theresa. The Empress Queen continued to be the real, as she was the legitimate, Sovereign of Austria, and took an active part in all the affairs of Europe.

Great qualities of Maria Theresa.

When the tranquillity of her kingdom was restored, she founded various colleges, reformed the public schools, promoted agriculture, and instituted many beneficial regulations for the prosperity of her subjects. She reformed the church, diminished the number of clergy, suppressed the Inquisition and the Jesuits, and framed a system of military economy which surpassed the boasted arrangements of her rival Frederic. "She combined private economy with public liberality, dignity with condescension, elevation of soul with humility of spirit, and the virtues of domestic life with the splendid qualities which grace a throne." Her death, in 1780, was felt as a general loss by the people, who adored her; and her reign is considered as one of the most illustrious in Austrian annals.

A. D. 1763 to 1796.

The reign of Catharine II. of Russia, like that of Maria Theresa, is interlinked with the history of Frederic. Before noticing it, however, some remarks concerning her predecessors are necessary.

Catharine, the wife of Peter the Great, we have already seen, was crowned Empress before his death. The first years of her reign after Peter's decease were agreeable to the people, because she diminished the taxes, introduced a mild policy in the government of her subjects, and intrusted to Prince Menzikoff an important share in the government of the realm. But Catharine, who, during the life of her husband, had displayed so much enterprise and intrepidity, very soon disdained business, and abandoned herself to luxury and pleasure. She died in 1727 of cancer, aggravated by excessive indulgence in wine. She was then only thirty-eight years of age, having survived the Czar but two years and a few months. Peter II. ascended her throne, chiefly in consequence of the intrigues of Menzikoff, who wished to make the Emperor his puppet.

Ch. 23

A. D. 1763 to 1796.

Peter II. was only thirteen years of age when he became Emperor. He was the son of Alexis, and consequently grandson of Peter I. As his youth did not permit him to assume the reins of government, everything was committed to the care of Menzikoff, who ruled, for a time, with absolute power. At last, however, he incurred the displeasure of his youthful master, and was exiled to Siberia. But Peter II. did not long survive the disgrace of his minister. He died of the small-pox in 1730, and was succeeded by Anne, Duchess of Holstein, the eldest daughter of Catharine I. But she lived only a few months after her accession to the throne, when the Princess Elizabeth succeeded her.

Peter II. becomes Emperor.

The Empress Elizabeth resembled her mother, the beautiful Catharine, but was voluptuous and weak. She would continue whole hours on her knees before an image, to which she spoke, and which she continually consulted; and then would turn from bigotry to infamous sensuality. She hated Frederic II., and assisted Maria Theresa in her struggles. She died in 1762, and was succeeded by the Grand Duke Peter Fedorowitz, son of the Duke of Holstein, by Anne, daughter of Peter I. He assumed the title of Peter III.

Empress Elizabeth.

Peter III. was a weak prince, but disposed to be beneficent.

Peter III.

Ch. 23 A. D. 1763 to 1796.

One of his first acts was to recall the numerous exiles whom the jealousy of Elizabeth had consigned to the deserts of Siberia. Among these was Biren, the haughty lover and barbarous minister of the Empress Anne, and Marshal Munich, a veteran of eighty-two years of age. Peter also abolished the Inquisition, established by Alexis Michaelowitz, the father of Peter the Great, and promoted commerce, the arts, and the sciences. For the King of Prussia he had an extravagant admiration. He set at liberty the Prussian prisoners, and made peace with Frederic II. His partiality for the Germans, and his numerous reforms, alienated the affections of his subjects, whose spirit of discontent he was unable to curb. He reigned but a few months, being dethroned and murdered.

Conspiracy of Catharine, and death of Peter.

His wife, the Empress Catharine, was the chief of the conspirators; and she was urged to the bloody act by her own desperate circumstances. She was obnoxious to her husband, who probably would have destroyed her, had his life been prolonged, so she resolved on his death. She was assisted by some of the most powerful nobles, and gained over most of the regiments of the Imperial Guard. The archbishop of Novgorod and the clergy were friendly to her, because they detested the reforms which Peter had attempted to make. Catharine, therefore, became mistress of St. Petersburg, and caused herself to be crowned Empress of Russia, in one of the principal churches. The nobles of the empire, the army, and the clergy, took the oath of allegiance, and the different monarchs of Europe acknowledged her as the absolute Sovereign of Russia. In 1763 she was firmly established in the power which had been before wielded by Catharine I.

Character of Catharine.

Catharine was no sooner established in the power which she had usurped, than she directed attention to the affairs of her empire, and sought to remedy the many great evils which then existed. She devoted herself to business, advanced commerce and the arts, regulated the finances, improved the jurisprudence of the realm, patronized all works of internal improvement, rewarded eminent merit, encouraged education,

and exercised a liberal and enlightened policy in her intercourse with foreign powers. After engaging in business with her ministers, she would converse with scholars and philosophers. With some she studied politics, and with others literature. She tolerated all religions, abolished odious courts, and enacted mild laws. She held out great inducements for foreigners to settle in Russia, and founded colleges and hospitals in all parts of her empire.

Assassination of Ivan.

Beneficent, however, as her reforms were, she nevertheless committed some great crimes. One of these was the assassination of the dethroned Ivan, the great-grandson of the Czar Ivan Alexejewitsch, who was brother of Peter the Great. On the death of the Empress Anne, in 1731, he had been proclaimed Emperor; but when Elizabeth was placed upon the throne, the infant was confined in the fortress of Schlussenburg. Here he was so closely guarded and confined, that he was never allowed access to the open air or the light of day. On the accession of Catharine, he was thirty-three years of age, and was extremely ignorant and weak. A conspiracy was formed to liberate him, and place him on the throne. The attempt proved abortive, and the Prince perished by the sword of his jailers, who were splendidly rewarded for this infamous service.

In 1772 occurred the partition of Poland between Austria, Prussia, and Russia. Catharine and Frederic II. were the chief authors of this atrocious act.

Wars of Catharine.

Her various schemes, and especially her interference in the affairs of Poland, caused the Ottoman Porte, in 1768, to declare war against her, which war proved disastrous to Turkey, and contributed to aggrandize the empire of Russia. The Turks lost several battles on the Pruth, Dniester, and Danube; the provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia and Bessarabia submitted to the Russian arms; while a great naval victory, in the Mediterranean, was gained by Alexis Orloff, whose share in the late revolution had raised him from the rank of a simple soldier to that of a general of the empire, and a favorite of the

Ch. 23 — A. D. 1768 to 1796.

Empress. The naval defeat of the Turks at Tschesmé, by Orloff and Elphinstone, was one of the most signal of that age, and greatly weakened the power of Turkey. The war was not terminated until 1774, when the Turks were compelled to make peace, by the conditions of which Russia obtained a large accession of territory, a great sum of money, the free navigation of the Black Sea, and a passage through the Dardanelles.

Renewed hostilities with Turkey.

The reign of Catharine was not signalized by any other great political event affecting the interests of Europe, except the continuation of the war with the Turks, which broke out again in 1789, and was concluded in 1792, by the treaty of Jassy. In this war Prince Potemkin, the favorite and prime minister of Catharine, greatly distinguished himself; as also did General Suwarrow, afterwards noted for his Polish campaigns. By the contest Russia lost two hundred thousand men, and the Turks three hundred and thirty thousand, besides expending two hundred and fifty millions of piastres. The most important political consequence was the aggrandizement of Russia, whose dominion was now established on the Black Sea.

Death of Catharine.

Catharine having acquired, either by war or intrigue, nearly half Poland, the Crimea, and a part of the frontiers of Turkey, then turned her arms against Persia. But she died before she could realize her dreams of conquest. At her death, which occurred in the year 1796, she was the most powerful sovereign that ever reigned in Russia. She was succeeded by her son, Paul I., and her remains were deposited by the side of her murdered husband.

Prince Potemkin.

Catharine, though a woman of great energy and talent, was ruled by favorites; the most distinguished of whom were Gregory Orloff and Prince Potemkin. The former was a man of brutal manners and surprising audacity; the latter was more civilized, but, like Orloff, disgraced by every vice. His memory, however, is still cherished in Russia on account of his military successes. He received more honors and rewards

from his Sovereign than is recorded of any favorite or minister of modern times. His power was equal to that of Richelieu, and his fortune was nearly as great as Mazarin's. He was knight of the principal orders of Prussia, Sweden, Poland, and Russia; field-marshal, and commander-in-chief of the Russian armies; high admiral of the fleets; great hetman of the Cossacks, and chamberlain of the Empress. He received from her a fortune of fifty millions of roubles, equal to nearly five millions sterling. The Orloffs also received about seventeen millions in lands, palaces, and money, with forty-five thousand peasants.

Illustrious reign of Catharine.

With the exceptions which have already been made, the character of Catharine was interesting and commanding. Her reign was splendid, and her Court magnificent. Her institutions and monuments were to Russia what the magnificence of Louis XIV. was to France. She was active and regular in her habits, never hurried away by anger, and never a prey to dejection; she was humorous, gay, and affable; she appreciated literature, and encouraged good institutions; and, with all her faults, obtained the love and reverence of her subjects.

REFERENCES.—For the reign of Maria Theresa, see Archdeacon Coxe's "Memoirs of the House of Austria," which is the most interesting and complete. See also Kolhrausch's "History of Germany;" Heeren's "Modern History;" and Smyth's "Lectures." For a life of Catharine, see "Castina's Life," translated by Hunter; Tooke's "Life of Catharine II;" Ségur's "Vie de Catharine II.;" Coxe's "Travels;" and Heeren's and Russell's "Modern History."

CHAPTER XXIV.

CALAMITIES OF POLAND.

Ch. 24 A. D. 1386 to 1572.

No kingdom in Europe has been subjected to so many misfortunes and changes as the Polish monarchy. Most of the European States have retained their ancient limits, for several centuries, without material changes, but Poland has been conquered, dismembered, and plundered. Its ancient Constitution has been completely subverted, and its extensive provinces are now annexed to the territories of Russia, Austria, and Prussia. The greatness of these national calamities has excited the sympathy of Christian nations, and its unfortunate fate is generally lamented.

Calamities of Poland.

In the sixteenth century Poland was a greater State than Russia, and was the most powerful of the northern kingdoms of Europe. The Poles, as a nation, are not, however, of very ancient date. Prior to the ninth century, they were split up into numerous tribes, independent of each other, and governed by their respective chieftains. Christianity was introduced in the tenth century, and the earliest records of the people were preserved by the monks.

We know but little of Poland before the introduction of Christianity, soon after which the various States were united, and subsequently governed by various monarchs until 1386. The dynasty of the Jagellons then commenced, and continued till 1572. Under the princes of this line, the government was arbitrary and oppressive. The history of their reigns is but a record of drunkenness, extortion, cruelty, lust, and violence—the common history of barbarous monarchs.

The Jagellons.

The brightest period in the history of Poland was probably

when Casimir IV. held the sceptre of empire. During his reign (1450–1492) Lithuania, which then comprised Hungary, Bohemia, and Silesia, was added to the kingdom, and the university of Cracow was founded. Poland was then the great resort of the Jews, to whom were committed the trade and commerce of the land. But the rigors of the feudal system proved unfortunate for the prosperity of the kingdom. The Diet of the nation controlled the King, and perpetuated the worst evils of the age.

Election of Polish kings.

When, in 1572, Sigismund II., the last male heir of the house of Jagellon, died, the nobles were sufficiently powerful to make the crown elective. From this period we date the decline of Poland. The Reformation, so beneficent in its effects, did not spread to this Sclavonic country; and the barbarism of the Middle Ages received no check.

On the death of Sigismund, the nobles would not permit the new sovereign to be elected by the Diet, but only by the whole body of the nobility. The plain of Praga was the place chosen for the election; and, at the time appointed, such a vast number arrived, that the plain, although twelve miles in circumference, was scarcely large enough to contain them and their retinues. Such a sight had never been seen since the Crusaders were marshalled on the field of Chalcedon. All were gorgeously apparelled, and decked with ermine, gold, and jewels—for the Polish horseman frequently invested half his fortune in his horse and dress. In the centre of the field was the tent of the late King, capable of accommodating eight thousand men. The candidates for the crown were Ernest, Archduke of Austria; the Czar of Russia; a Swedish Prince; and Henry of Valois, Duke of Anjou, and brother of Charles IX., King of France.

The Duke of Anjou.

The first candidate was rejected because the House of Austria was odious to the Polish nobles; the second, on account of his arrogance; and the third, because he was not powerful enough to bring advantage to the republic. The choice fell on the Duke of Anjou; and he, for the title of King, agreed

Ch. 24 to the ignominious conditions which the Poles proposed, viz., that he should not attempt to influence the election of his successors; or assume the title of heir of the monarchy; or declare war without the consent of the Diet; or impose taxes of any description; or have power to appoint his ambassadors; or induct any foreigner to a benefice in the church: that he should convoke the Diet every two years; and that he should not marry without its permission. He was also required to furnish four thousand French troops, in case of war; to apply annually, for the sole benefit of the Polish State, a considerable part of his hereditary revenues; to pay the debts of the crown; and to educate, at his own expense, at Paris or Cracow, one hundred Polish nobles. Scarcely, however, had he been crowned, when his brother died, and he was called to the throne of France. Never did criminal long more to escape from prison, than did Henry of Valois to break the fetters which bound him to his imperious subjects. He resolved to abandon them at all hazards, concealed his intentions with great address, gave a great ball at his palace, and in the midst of the festivities, set out full speed towards Silesia. He reached Paris in safety, and was soon after crowned King of France.

A. D. 1572 to 1682.

Henry flies from his kingdom.

He was succeeded by Stephen, Duke of Transylvania; and he, again, in 1587, by Sigismund, Crown Prince of Sweden. The two sons of Sigismund were then successively elected Kings of Poland, the last of whom, John II., was embroiled in constant war. It was during his disastrous reign that John Sobieski, with ten thousand Poles, defeated eighty thousand Cossacks. On the death of Michael, in 1673, who had succeeded John II., Sobieski, on account of his military talents, was elected King, under the title of John III.

His successors.

Poland now needed a strong arm to defend her. Her decline had already commenced, and Sobieski himself could not avert the ruin which impended. For some time the Monarch enjoyed cessation from war, and his energies were directed to repair the evils which had disgraced his

John Sobieski.

country. But before he could prosecute successfully any useful reforms, the war between the Turks and the eastern powers of Europe broke out, and Vienna was besieged by an overwhelming army of two hundred thousand Mohammedans. The city was bravely defended, but its capture seemed inevitable. The Emperor of Germany, in his despair, implored the aid of Sobieski, who was invested with the command of the allied armies, consisting of Austrians, Bavarians, Saxons, and Poles, and amounting to seventy thousand men. With this force he advanced to relieve Vienna, and beneath its walls, in the year 1683, he obtained one of the most signal victories in the history of war. Immense treasures fell into his hands, and Vienna and Christendom were saved.

A. D. 1683 to 1764.

The Emperor treated his deliverer with arrogance and chilling coldness. No gratitude was exhibited or felt. Sobieski, however, in spite of the ingratitude of Leopold, pursued his victories over the Turks; and, like Charles Martel, ten centuries before, freed Europe from the danger of a Mohammedan yoke. But he saved a serpent, which turned and stung him for his kindness.

Ingratitude of Austria.

He was succeeded, in 1696, by Frederic Augustus, Elector of Saxony, whose reign was a constant succession of disasters. It was at this time that Poland was invaded and conquered by Charles XII. of Sweden. To him succeeded Frederic Augustus II., the most extravagant and licentious Monarch of his age. His reign, as King of Poland, was exceedingly disastrous. Muscovite and Prussian armies traversed the plains of his country at pleasure, and extorted whatever they pleased. Faction opposed faction in the field and in the Diet. The National Assembly was dissolved by the *veto*, the laws were disregarded, and brute force prevailed on every side. The miserable peasants in vain sought the protection of their powerless lords. Bands of robbers infested the roads, and hunger invaded the cottages. The country rapidly declined in wealth, population, and public spirit.

Reign of Frederic Augustus.

Under the reign of Stanislaus II., who succeeded Frederic

Ch. 24 A. D. 1764 to 1772.

Augustus II., in 1764, the ambassadors of Prussia, Austria, and Russia, informed the miserable King that, in order to prevent further bloodshed, and to restore peace to Poland, the three powers had determined to insist upon their claims to some of the provinces of the kingdom. This barefaced and iniquitous scheme, which had originated with Frederic the Great, was carried into effect in the year 1772. Poland was dismembered, and territories, inhabited by four millions eight hundred thousand people, were divided between Frederic, Maria Theresa, and Catharine II.

Remorse of Maria Theresa.

Neither Frederic nor Catharine had any scruples as to the lawfulness of this act, but the conscience of Maria Theresa long resisted. "The fear of hell," said she, "restrains me from seizing another's possessions;" but sophistry was brought to bear upon her mind, and the lust of dominion asserted its powerful sway. This crime was regarded with detestation by the other powers of Europe; but they were too much occupied with their own troubles to interfere, except by expostulation. England was at this time disturbed by difficulties in the colonies, and at the second partition, in 1794, France was distracted by revolutionary tumults.

Polish reforms.

Stanislaus, robbed of one third of his dominions, now directed his attention to those reforms which had been so long imperatively needed. He entrusted to the celebrated Zamoyski the task of revising the Constitution. The patriotic chancellor recommended the abolition of the "liberum veto," a fatal privilege, by which any one of the armed equestrians, who assembled on the plain of Praga to elect a King, or deliberate on State affairs, had power to nullify the most important acts, and even to dissolve the Assembly. Zamoyski also recommended the emancipation of serfs, the encouragement of commerce, the elevation of the trading classes, and the abolition of the fatal custom of electing a King. But the Polish nobles, infatuated and doomed, opposed these wholesome reforms. They even had the madness to invoke the aid

of the Empress Catharine to protect them in their ancient privileges. Ch. 24

A. D. 1773 to 1794.

Too late they perceived their folly. An army of one hundred thousand men again invaded Poland, to effect a new partition. The unhappy country, without fortified towns or mountains, abandoned by all the world, distracted by divisions, and destitute of fortresses and military stores, was crushed by the power of gigantic enemies. The patriots made a desperate struggle under Kosciusko, a Lithuanian, but were forced to yield to inevitable necessity. Warsaw for a time held out against fifty thousand men; but, in 1794, the Polish hero was defeated in a decisive engagement, and unfortunately taken prisoner. His countrymen still rallied, and another bloody battle was fought at Praga, opposite Warsaw, on the other side of the Vistula, when ten thousand were slain. Praga was reduced to a heap of ruins; and twelve thousand citizens were slaughtered in cold blood. Warsaw soon after surrendered, Stanislaus was sent as a captive to Russia, and the final partition of the kingdom was made.

Polish struggles.

"Sarmatia fell," but not "unwept," nor yet "without a crime." "She fell," says Alison, "a victim of her own dissensions, of the chimera of equality falsely pursued, and the rigor of aristocracy unceasingly maintained. The eldest born of the European family was the first to perish, because she had thwarted all the ends of the social union; because she united the turbulence of democratic to the exclusion of aristocratic societies; because she had the vacillation of a republic without its energy, and the oppression of a monarchy without its stability. The Poles obstinately refused to march with other nations in the only road to civilization: they had valor, but it could not enforce obedience to the laws; it could not preserve domestic tranquillity; it could not restrain the violence of petty feuds and intestine commotions; it could not preserve the proud nobles from unbounded dissipation and corruption; it could not prevent foreign powers from interfering in the affairs of the kingdom; it could not dissolve the union of

Causes of the fall of Poland.

Ch. 24 these powers with discontented parties at home; it could not inspire the slowly-moving machine of government with vigor, when the humblest partisan, corrupted with foreign money, could arrest it with a word; it could not avert the entrance of foreign armies to support the factious and rebellious; it could not uphold, in a divided country, the national independence against the combined effects of foreign and domestic treason; finally, it could not effect impossibilities, nor turn aside the destroying sword which had so long impended over it."

A. D. 1794 to 1832.

The blotting out of Poland, as an independent State, from the map of Europe, was fully accomplished in the year 1832, when it was incorporated into the great Empire of Russia.

REFERENCES.—Fletcher's "History of Poland;" Rulhière's "Histoire de l'Anarchie de Pologne;" Coyer's "Vie de Sobieski;" Parthenay's "History of Augustus II.;" Hordynski's "History of the late Polish Revolution." Also see Lives of Frederic II., Maria Theresa, and Catharine II.; contemporaneous histories of Prussia, Russia, and Austria; Alison's "History of Europe;" Smyth's "Lectures;" Russell's "Modern Europe;" and Heeren's "Modern History."

CHAPTER XXV.

RISE AND DECLINE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

Ch. 25

A. D. 900 to 950.

WHILE the great monarchies of Western Europe were struggling for pre-eminence, and were developing resources greater than had ever before been exhibited since the fall of the Roman Empire, that power, which had alarmed and astonished Christendom in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, began to show signs of weakness and decay.

Rise of Mohammedan power.

Nothing, in the history of society, is more marvellous than the rise of Mohammedan kingdoms. The victories of the Saracens were rapid and complete. In the tenth century they were the most successful warriors on the globe; they had planted the standard of the Prophet on the walls of Eastern capitals, and had extended their conquests to India on the east, and to Spain on the west. Powerful Mohammedan States had arisen in Asia, Africa, and Europe, and the Crusaders alone arrested the progress of these triumphant armies.

Dismemberment of the Saracenic Empire.

The enthusiasm which the doctrines of Mohammed kindled cannot easily be explained; but it was fresh, impetuous, and self-sacrificing. Successive armies of Mohammedan invaders overwhelmed the ancient realms of civilization, and reduced the people whom they conquered and converted to a despotic yoke. But success enervated the victors; and the great Empire of the Caliphs in the East was broken up. Mohammed perpetuated a religion, but not an Empire. Different Saracenic chieftains revolted from the "Father of the Faithful," and established separate kingdoms, or viceroyalties, nearly independent of the acknowledged successors of

Ch. 25 Mohammed. As early as the the tenth century the Saracenic Empire was dismembered; and the Sultans of Egypt, Spain, and Syria then contested for pre-eminence.

A. D. 950 to 1055.

But a new power arose on the ruins of the Saracen Empire, which was destined to become the enthusiastic defender of the religion of Islam. When Bagdad was the seat of a powerful monarchy, the Turks were an obscure tribe of barbarians. Their origin has been traced to the wilds of Scythia; but they early deserted their native forests in search of more fruitful regions. When, about the ninth century, Apulia and Sicily were subdued by the Norman pirates, a swarm of these Scythian shepherds settled in Armenia, and, by their valor and simplicity, soon became a powerful tribe. Not long after they were settled in their new abode, the Sultan of Persia invoked their aid to assist him in his wars against the Caliph of Bagdad, his great rival. The Turks complied with his request, and their arms were successful. The Sultan then refused to part with such useful auxiliaries, and, fearing their strength, resolved to shut them up in the centre of his dominions, and to employ them in his wars against the Hindoos. The Turkmans rebelled, withdrew into a mountainous part of the country, became robbers, and devastated the adjacent countries.

Origin of the Turks.

The band of robbers gradually swelled into a powerful army, gained a great victory over the troops of the Sultan Mohammed, and, in the year 1038, placed their chieftain upon the Persian throne. According to Gibbon, the new Monarch was chosen by lot; and Seljuk having the fortune to win the prize of conquest, became the founder of the dynasty of the Shepherd Kings. During the reign of his grandson, Togrul, the ancient Persian princes were expelled, and the Turks embraced the religion of the conquered.

Their conquests.

In 1055 the Turkish Sultan delivered the Caliph of Bagdad from the arms of the Caliph of Egypt, who disputed with him the title of *Commander of the Faithful.* For this service he was magnificently rewarded by the grateful successor of

the Prophet, who, at that time, banqueted in his palace at Bagdad—a venerable phantom of power. The victorious Sultan was publicly commissioned as Lieutenant of the Caliph, and he was virtually seated on the throne of the Abbassides. Shortly after, the Turkish conqueror invaded the falling empire of the Greeks, and its Asiatic provinces were irretrievably lost.

Masters of Asia Minor and Jerusalem.

In the latter part of the eleventh century the Turkish power was established in Asia Minor, and Jerusalem itself had fallen into the hands of the Sultan. He exacted two pieces of gold from every pilgrim, and treated Christians with greater cruelty than the Saracens had ever done. The extortion and oppression of the Turkish masters of the Sacred City led to the Crusades, which terminated with the final possession of Western Asia by the followers of the Prophet. At last, the Seljukian dynasty, like that of the Abbassides at Bagdad, ran out, and Othman, a soldier of fortune, became Sultan of the Turks. He is regarded as the founder of the Ottoman Empire; and under his reign, from 1299 to 1326, the Moslems made rapid strides in their course of aggrandizement.

Othman and his successors.

Urkhan, his son, instituted the force of the Janizaries, completed the conquest of Bithynia, and laid the foundation of Turkish power in Europe. Under his successor, Amurath I., Adrianople became the capital of the Ottoman Empire, and the rival of Constantinople. Bajazet succeeded Amurath, and his conquests extended from the Euphrates to the Danube. In 1396 he defeated, at Nicopolis, a confederate army of one hundred thousand Christians; and, in the intoxication of victory, declared that he would feed his horse with a bushel of oats on the altar of St. Peter, at Rome. Had it not been for the victories of Tamerlane, Constantinople, which contained within its walls the feeble fragments of a great empire, would also have fallen into his hands. He was, however, unsuccessful in his war with the great conqueror of Asia, and, in the year 1402, was defeated at the Battle of Angora,

Captivity of Bajazet.

Ch. 25 taken captive, and carried to Samarcand, by Tamerlane, in an iron cage.

A. D. 1402 to 1500. The great Bajazet died in captivity, and Mohammed I. succeeded to his throne. He restored, on a firmer basis, the fabric of the Ottoman monarchy, and devoted himself to the arts of peace. His successor, Amurath II., continued hostilities with the Greeks, and laid siege to Constantinople. This magnificent city, the last monument of Roman greatness, was not able to offer any lengthened resistance to the Turkish arms. In the year 1453, it fell before an irresistible force of three hundred thousand men, supported by a fleet of three hundred sail. The Emperor Constantine Palæologus was slain, the city was sacked, the people were enslaved, and the Church of St. Sophia, despoiled of the oblations of ages, was converted into a Mohammedan mosque. One hundred and twenty thousand manuscripts perished in the sack of Constantinople, and the palaces and treasure of the Greeks were transferred to semi-barbarians.

Fall of Constantinople.

From that time the Byzantine capital became the seat of the Ottoman Empire; and, for more than two centuries, Turkish armies excited the fears and disturbed the peace of the world. They gradually subdued and annexed Macedonia, the Peloponnesus, Epirus, Bulgaria, Servia, Bosnia, Armenia, Cyprus, Syria, Egypt, India, Tunis, Algiers, Media, Mesopotamia, and a part of Hungary, to the dominions of the Sultan. In the sixteenth century the Ottoman Empire was the most powerful in the world. Nor shall we be surprised at the great success of the Turks, when we remember their singular bravery, their absorbing ambition, their almost incredible obedience to the commands of the Sultan, and the unity which pervaded the national councils. They also fought to extend their religion, to which they were blind devotees. After the capture of Constantinople, a succession of great princes sat on the most absolute throne known in modern times; men disgraced by many crimes, but still singularly adapted to the position they occupied.

Power of the Turks.

Ch. 25

A. D. 1520 to 1699.

The progress of the Turkish arms justly alarmed the Emperor Charles V., and he more than once exerted all his energies to unite the German princes against them, but unsuccessfully. The Sultan Solyman, called the *Magnificent*, who came to the throne in 1520, maintained his supremacy over Transylvania, Wallachia, and Moldavia, ravaged Hungary, wrested Rhodes from the Knights of St. John, conquered the whole of Arabia, and attacked the Portuguese dominions in India. His empire was one vast camp, and his decrees were dated from the imperial stirrup. The iron sceptre which he and his successors wielded, was dipped in blood; discipline alone was the politics of his soldiers, and rapine their resources.

Solyman the Magnificent.

Selim II. succeeded Solyman in the year 1566. His son, Murad III., penetrated into Russia and Poland, and made war on the Emperor of Germany. Mohammed III., who died in 1604, murdered all his brothers, nineteen in number, and executed his own son. The characters of the Sultans were generally marked by ferocity and jealousy, and they were unscrupulous in the means they took to advance their power. The world has rarely seen more suspicious tyrants; and it must ever excite our wonder that they were so unhesitatingly obeyed. They were, however, sometimes dethroned by the Janizaries, who constituted a sort of imperial guard. Osman II., fearing the power of this body, resolved to destroy them, as dangerous to the State; but his design was discovered, and, in 1622, he himself lost his life. Several monsters of tyranny and iniquity now succeeded, whose reigns were disgraced by every excess of debauchery and cruelty. Their subjects, however, had not as yet lost their vigor, temperance, or ambition; and they still continued to furnish troops unexampled for discipline and bravery.

His successors.

Osman II.

The Turkish power received no important check until the reign of Mohammed IV., during which Sobieski, in 1683 defeated the immense army which had laid siege to Vienna. By the peace of Carlovitz, in 1699, Transylvania was ceded

Ch. 25 to the Emperor of Germany, and a barrier was raised against Mohammedan invasion. From the peace of Carlovitz, the decline of the Ottoman Empire has been gradual but marked, owing to the indifference of the Turks to all modern improvements, and to a generally sluggish policy, hostile to progress, and sceptical of civilization.

A. D. 1699 to 1792.

Jealousies of the Russians.

The Russians, from the time of Peter the Great, have always looked with great jealousy on the power of the Sultan. No sovereign desired the humiliation of the Porte more than Catharine II. The bloody contest which ensued, was signalized by the victories of Galitzin, Suwarrow, Romanzoff, and Orloff, and Turkey became a second class power, no longer feared by the European states. By the peace of Jassy, concluded in 1792, the Porte consented to the incorporation of the Crimea with Russia, and the Dniester became the frontier between the two Empires.

Turkish Institutions.

The institution of the Janizaries has already been referred to. To this guard of soldiers was intrusted the defence of the Sultan, and the protection of his capital. When warlike and able princes were seated on the throne, they proved a great support to the Government; but when the reins were held by effeminate princes, the Janizaries, like the Prætorian Guards of Rome, acquired an undue ascendency, and even deposed the monarchs whom they were bound to obey. They were insolent, extortionate, and extravagant, and ultimately became a great burden to the State. In later days they lost their skill and courage, were uniformly beaten in the wars with the Russians, and retained nothing of the soldier but the name. Mahmoud II., in our own time, has succeeded in exterminating this dangerous body, and European tactics are now introduced into the Turkish army.

The character of the nation is essentially military. All Mussulmans, in the eye of the law, are soldiers, to whom the extension of the Empire and the propagation of the faith are the avowed objects of warfare. They may be regarded,

wherever they have conquered, as military colonists, exercising great tyranny, and treating all vanquished subjects with contempt. The government has always been a pure despotism; and both the executive and legislative authorities have been vested in the Sultan. He is the *sole* fountain of honor; for, in Turkey, birth confers no privilege. His actions are regarded as prescribed by an inevitable fate, and his subjects suffer with resignation. The evils of this despotism are frequently aggravated by the ignorance and effeminacy of those to whom power is intrusted, although the Grand Vizier, who is the prime minister of the empire, is generally a man of great experience and talent. All the laws of the country are founded upon the teaching of the Koran, the example of Mohammed, the precepts of the four first Caliphs, and the decisions of learned doctors upon disputed cases. Justice is administered promptly, but without much regard to equity or mercy; and the course of the Grand Vizier is generally marked by blood.

A military people.

The character of the people partakes of the nature of their government, religion, and climate. They are arrogant and ignorant; fastidiously abstemious in some things, and grossly sensual in others. They have cherished the virtue of hospitality, and are fond of conversation; but their domestic life is spent in voluptuous idleness, and is dull and insipid compared with that of Europeans. Greatly indeed have they degenerated since the time when they founded an immense empire on the ruins of Asiatic monarchies, and filled the world with the terror of their arms.

National character.

REFERENCES.—See Knolle's "History of Turkey;" Eton's "Survey of the Turkish Empire;" Upham's "History of the Ottoman Empire;" "Encyclopædia Britannica;" Heeren's "Modern History;" and Madden's "Travels in Turkey."

CHAPTER XXVI.

REIGN OF GEORGE III.

Ch. 26 — A. D. 1760 to 1820.

GREAT subjects were discussed in England, and great events happened in America, during the latter years of the reigns of Frederic II., Catharine II., and Maria Theresa. These now demand attention.

George III. ascended the throne of Great Britain at a period of unparalleled prosperity, when the English arms were victorious in all parts of the world, and when commerce and the arts had greatly enriched the country and strengthened its political importance. By the peace of Paris, in 1763, the dominions of the King were enlarged, and the country over which he reigned became the most powerful in Europe.

The Grenville Ministry.

Soon after the conclusion of this peace Lord Bute retired, and the Grenville ministry succeeded to power, an administration which was signalized by the prosecution of Wilkes, and by schemes for the taxation of the American colonies.

Wilkes, then in Parliament, was a man of ruined fortunes and profligate morals, who had applied to Government for some post and been rejected. Failure enraged him, and he resolved to libel the Ministers, under the pretext of exercising the liberty of the press. He was editor of the "North Briton," a periodical of some talent, but more bitterness. In the forty-fifth number he assailed the King, charging him with a direct falsehood. The charge ought to have been dismissed with contempt; for it was against the dignity of the Government to refute an infamous slander. But, in an evil hour, it was thought expedient to vindicate the honor of the Sovereign, and a warrant was issued against the editor, publisher and

John Wilkes.

printer of the publication. The officers of the law entered Wilkes's house late one evening, seized his papers, and committed him to the Tower. He immediately took out a writ of habeas corpus, and was brought up to Westminster Hall. Being a man of considerable abilities and influence, his case attracted attention. The Judges decided that his arrest was illegal, since a Member of Parliament could not be imprisoned except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace. He had not committed any of these crimes, for a libel had only a *tendency* to disturb the peace. He was, therefore, discharged. Lord Chief Justice Pratt gained great popularity by his charge in favor of the liberation of Wilkes, and by his noble defence of constitutional liberty. He is better known as Lord Camden, Lord Chancellor and statesman during a succeeding Administration, and one of the greatest lawyers England has produced.

Ch. 26 A. D. 1763.

His seizure and discharge.

After the discharge of Wilkes, the Attorney-General was ordered to commence a state prosecution, and he was arraigned at the bar of the House of Commons. It was voted by a large majority, that the forty-fifth number of the "North Briton" was a scandalous and seditious libel, and the paper was ordered to be burned by the common hangman. Wilkes then complained to the House of a breach of privilege. But the Commons decided that privilege of Parliament does not extend to a libel, which resolution was against the decision of the Court of Common Pleas, and the precedents upon record in their own journals. That his prosecution was an attack on the Constitution, cannot be doubted. Wilkes was arrested on what is called a *general warrant*, which, if often resorted to, would be fatal to the liberties of the people. Many, who strongly disliked the libeller, still defended him in this instance, among whom were Pitt, Beckford, Legge, Yorke, and Sir George Saville. But party spirit and detestation of the man triumphed over the Constitution. Wilkes, however, was not discouraged, and immediately brought an action, in Westminster Hall, against the Earl of Halifax, the Secretary of

Renewed prosecution.

Still unconstitutional.

Ch. 26 State, for seizing his papers, and after a hearing of fifteen hours, before Lord Chief Justice Pratt and a special jury, A. D. 1765. obtained a verdict in his favor of one thousand pounds damages and costs. In spite of this, however, he was tried and convicted, and as he did not appear in court to receive sentence was outlawed. He was also expelled from the House of Commons.

Ministry of the Marquis of Rockingham.

The ferment created by the prosecution of Wilkes led to the resignation of Mr. Grenville in 1765, and the Marquis of Rockingham succeeded him as the head of the Administration. He retained his place but a few months, and was succeeded by the Duke of Grafton, the object of such virulent invective in the "Letters of Junius,"—a work without elevation of sentiment, without recognition of the eternal laws of justice, and without truthfulness, yet a work which is to this day regarded as a masterpiece of savage and unscrupulous sarcasm.

Election of Wilkes for Middlesex.

Wilkes now had the audacity, notwithstanding the sentence of outlawry which had been passed against him, to return from Paris, to which he had for a time retired, and to appear publicly at Guildhall, and offer himself as a candidate for the city of London. He was contemptuously rejected, but succeeded in being elected as Member for the county of Middlesex. Recognizing the outlawry, he at once surrendered to the jurisdiction of the Court of the King's Bench, which was then presided over by Lord Mansfield. This great lawyer and jurist confirmed the verdicts against him, and sentenced him to pay a fine of one thousand pounds, to suffer two years' imprisonment, and to find security for good behaviour for seven years.

Popular indignation.

The sentence was odious and severe. The multitude, enraged, rescued their idol from the officers of the law, as they were conducting him to prison, and carried him in triumph through the city; but, through his entreaties, they were prevailed upon to abstain from further acts of outrage. Mr. Wilkes again surrendered himself, and was confined in prison. When the Commons met, he was a second time expelled.

But the electors of Middlesex returned him afresh to Parliament, when the Commons voted, that, being once expelled, he was incapable of sitting. The electors of Middlesex, equally determined, chose him, a third time, their representative; and the election, for the time, was declared void by the Commons. In order to terminate the contest, Colonel Lutterell, a Member of the House, vacated his seat, and offered himself a candidate for Middlesex. He received two hundred and ninety-six votes, and Wilkes twelve hundred and forty-three, but Lutterell was declared duly elected by the Commons, and took his seat for the county.

Expulsion from the House of Commons.

This decision threw the whole nation into a ferment, being generally considered an outrage on the freedom of election. It was so regarded by some of the most eminent men in England, even by those who despised the character of Wilkes. Lord Chatham, from his seat, declared "that the laws were despised, trampled upon, destroyed; laws which had been made by the stern virtues of our ancestors, those iron barons of old, to whose spirit in the hour of contest, and to whose fortitude in the triumph of victory, the silken barons of this day owe all their honors and security."

Mr. Wilkes subsequently triumphed. The Commons grew weary of a contest which brought no advantage and much ignominy, and the prosecution was dropped; but not until the subject of it had been made Lord Mayor of London. From 1768 to 1772 he was the unrivalled political idol of the people, who lavished on him all in their power to bestow. They subscribed twenty thousand pounds for the payment of his debts, besides gifts of plate, wine, and household goods. Every wall bore his name, and every window his picture. In china, bronze, or marble, he stood upon the chimney-pieces of half the houses in London, and he swung from the sign-board of every village and every great road in the environs of the metropolis. In 1770 he was discharged from his imprisonment; in 1771 he was permitted to take his seat, and was elected Mayor. From 1776 his popularity

Triumph of Wilkes.

Death and character.

Ch. 26 declined, and he became involved in pecuniary difficulties. He, however, emerged from them, and enjoyed a quiet office until his death, which took place in the year 1797.

A. D. 1765.

During this prosecution, important events occurred, of much greater moment to the world.

Scheme to tax America.

A proposal to tax the American colonies had, as we have already seen, been made to Sir Robert Walpole, but this prudent and sagacious minister declined to act on the suggestion. Mr. Grenville was not, however, daunted by the difficulties and dangers which the more able Walpole had regarded. In order to lighten the burden which long and ruinous wars had entailed, the Minister proposed to raise a revenue from the colonies. The project pleased the House, and on the 22nd of March, 1765, the Stamp Duties were imposed. It is true that the tax was a light one, and was so regarded by Mr. Grenville; but he intended it as a precedent. He maintained that the colonists, as the subjects of the King of Great Britain, and as receiving protection from the Government, were bound to contribute to its support.

Alarm of the colonists.

They, on the other hand, maintained that, though subject to English legislation, they could not be taxed, any more than other subjects of Great Britain, without their consent. They were willing, they said, to be ruled in accordance with those royal charters which had, at different times, been given them. They were willing to assist the mother country, which they loved and revered, in expelling its enemies from adjoining territories, and to fight battles in its defence. But they looked upon the soil which they had cultivated in the wilderness amid so many difficulties, hardships, and dangers, as their own; and believed that they were bound to raise taxes only to defend themselves, and to promote good government, religion, and morality in their midst. They could not understand why they should be compelled to support English wars on the continent of Europe. They were not represented in the English Parliament, and they composed, politically speaking, no part of the English nation. Great,

therefore, was their indignation, when they learned that the English Government was interfering with their chartered rights, and designed to raise a revenue from them to lighten taxes at home. If they could be taxed, without their consent, in anything, they could be taxed, they said, without limit; and they would be in danger of becoming mere slaves of the mother country, and be bound to labor for English aggrandizement. On one point they insisted with peculiar earnestness—that taxation, in a free country, without a representation of interests in Parliament, was an outrage.

Passing of the Stamp Act.

The English Government, strangely blinded, did not perceive or feel the force of the reasoning of the colonists, and obstinately resolved to resort to measures which, with a free and spirited people, must necessarily lead to violence. The House of Commons would not even hear the reports of the colonial agents, but proceeded, with singular infatuation, to impose the Stamp Act. There were some, however, who perceived the folly and injustice of the course that was pursued. General Conway, Colonel Barré, and William Pitt, opposed the policy of Grenville with singular eloquence, and maintained that the House had *no right* to lay an internal tax on a country which was not represented.

Its effects and repeal.

The passage of this Act created great disturbances in America, and was everywhere regarded as the beginning of calamities. Throughout the colonies there was a general combination to resist; it was resolved to purchase no English manufactures, and to prevent the adoption of stamped paper.

Such violent and unexpected opposition embarrassed the English Ministry; Grenville retired, and was succeeded by the Marquis of Rockingham. During his short administration the Stamp Act was repealed, although the Commons still insisted on their right to tax America. The joy which this change created in the colonies was unbounded; and the speech of Pitt, who proposed the repeal, and defended it with great eloquence, was everywhere read with enthusiasm, and served to strengthen the conviction, among the leading

Ch. 26 men in the colonies, that their cause was right. Lord Rock-
A. D. 1767 to 1770. ingham did not long remain at the head of the Government. He was succeeded by the Duke of Grafton; Mr. Pitt, recently created Earl of Chatham, being virtually the Prime Minister. Lord Rockingham retired from office with a high character for pure and disinterested patriotism.

Elevation of Chatham. The elevation of Lord Chatham to the peerage destroyed his popularity and weakened his power. He had long been known and designated as the *Great Commoner*. But now the people abandoned him. Chatham felt the change. He lost his spirits, and interested himself but little in public affairs. Sequestered amid the groves of his family residence, he became melancholy, nervous, and unfit for business. Nor could he be induced to attend a Cabinet Council, even on the most pressing occasions.

Renewed taxation. His colleagues, in spite of his warnings, determined to impose new taxes on America. These were in the shape of duties on glass, tea, paper, lead, and painters' colors, from which no considerable revenue could be gained, while much discontent would inevitably result. When the news reached the colonies, it destroyed all the cheerfulness which the repeal of the Stamp Act had caused. Sullenness and gloom returned; trust in Parliament was diminished; fresh combinations of opposition were organized, and the newspapers teemed with invective. In the midst of these disturbances, Lord Chatham resigned the Privy Seal, and retired from the Administration. This was in the year 1768.

In 1770, the Duke of Grafton also resigned his office as First Lord of the Treasury, chiefly in consequence of the increasing difficulties in America; and Lord North, who had been two years Chancellor of the Exchequer, took his place.

Ministry of Lord North. He was an amiable and accomplished nobleman, with many personal friends, and few enemies; but unfit to manage the helm of State in the approaching storm. It was his misfortune to be Minister in the most unsettled and revolutionary of times, and to misunderstand not merely the spirit of the

age, but the character and circumstances of the American colonies. George III., with singular obstinacy and blindness, sustained the Minister against all opposition; and under his administration the American war was carried on, which ended so disastrously to the mother country. Ch. 26 A. D. 1770 to 1773.

Lord North, at the commencement of his administration, repealed the obnoxious duties which had been imposed in 1767, still, however, retaining the duty on tea, with a view chiefly to assert the supremacy of Great Britain, and her right to tax the colonies. Duty on tea.

But the imposition of the port duties, by Grenville, had led to discussion as to the nature and extent of Parliamentary power. A distinction at first had been admitted between internal and external taxes; but it was soon asserted by the colonies that Great Britain had no right to tax them, either internally or externally. It was stated that they had received charters, under the great seal, which had given them all the rights and privileges of Englishmen at home, and therefore, since in accordance with these they could not be taxed, except by their own consent, they were indignant at the course the mother country had pursued with reference to them. Patrick Henry, a Virginian, supported this view with unrivalled eloquence and power, as did John Adams, Josiah Quincy, James Otis, and other patriots in Massachusetts. Riots took place in Boston, Newport, and New York, and assemblies of citizens in various parts expressed an indignant and revolutionary spirit. Growth of discontent.

The public discontents were further inflamed by information which Dr. Franklin, then in London, afforded the colonies, and by the advice he gave them to persevere, assuring them that, if they were firm, they had nothing to apprehend. He got into his possession a copy of the letters of Governor Hutchinson to the Ministry, which he transmitted to the colonies, where they were made public. These letters were considered by the Legislature of Massachusetts as unjust and libellous, and his recall was demanded. Resolutions, of an Dr. Franklin in London.

Ch. 26 offensive character, were everywhere passed, and all things indicated an approaching storm.

A. D. 1774. The colonists having determined to resist taxation, not on account of immediate burdens, but upon principle, now resolved to prevent the landing of tea. Accordingly, when the ships of the East India Company, containing three hundred and forty-two chests, entered Boston harbour, a multitude rushed to the wharf, and twenty persons, disguised as Indians, went on board, staved the chests, and threw their contents into the sea. In New York and Philadelphia, as no persons could be found who would venture to receive the tea sent to those ports, the ships laden with it returned to England.

Destruction of tea in Boston.

The Ministers of the Crown, indignant with the province of Massachusetts, which had always been foremost in resistance, immediately resolved to ruin the port of Boston. Accordingly, in 1774, they introduced a bill to discontinue the lading and shipping of goods, wares, and merchandise at Boston, and to remove the custom-house to Salem. The bill received the general approbation of the House, and passed by a great majority. This was followed by several others of an equally irritating character, until a fire was kindled which no subsequent efforts could extinguish.

Boston Port Bill.

Popular movements.

Organized arrangements were now made by the colonists to abstain from all commerce with the mother country; and measures were adopted to assemble a General Congress, to take into consideration the state of the country. People began to talk of defending their rights by the sword. Everywhere was heard the sound of the drum and the fife. Associations were formed for the purchase of arms and ammunition Addresses were printed and circulated calling on the people to resist unlawful encroachments. All proceedings in the courts of justice were suspended. Jurors refused to take their oaths; the reign of law ceased, and that of violence commenced.

In the mean time, the Great Congress met at Philadelphia, in which all the colonies were represented but Georgia;

resolutions were passed approving the course of Massachusetts, and a bill was adopted, called a *Declaration of Rights*. An address was also sent to the King, framed with great ability, discussing the rights of the colonies, complaining of the mismanagement of Ministers, and beseeching a redress of the public evils.

Discussions in England.

This Congress was considered by the Government of Great Britain as illegal, and its petition was disregarded. Experienced English statesmen now fully perceived the danger and importance of the crisis. Lord Chatham put forth all the eloquence of which he was master to arouse the Ministers. He besought them to withdraw the troops from Boston. He showed the folly of metaphysical refinements about the right of taxation when a continent was in arms. He spoke of the means of enforcing taxation as inefficient and ridiculous. Lord Camden sustained Chatham in the House of Lords, and declared, not as a philosopher, but as a constitutional lawyer, that England had no right to tax America. Mr. Burke moved a conciliatory measure in the House of Commons, fraught with sagacity. "My hold of the colonies," said this great oracle of moral wisdom, "is the close affection which grows from common names, from kindred blood, from similar privileges, and from equal protection. These are the ties which, though light as air, are as strong as links of iron. Let the colonies always keep the idea of their civil rights associated with your government; they will cling to you, and no power under heaven will be able to tear them from their allegiance. But let it once be understood that your government may be one thing, and their privileges another, then the cement is gone, and everything hastens to dissolution. It is the love of the people, it is their attachment to your government from the sense of the deep stake they have in such glorious institutions, that gives you your army and navy, and infuses into both that liberal obedience without which your army would be but a base rabble, and your navy nothing but rotten timber." Colonel Barré and

Speech of Mr. Burke.

Ch. 26 Fox supported Burke, but without effect; the Ministry was determined as to its course. The colonies were declared to be in a state of rebellion, and measures were adopted to crush them.

A. D. 1775.

Battle of Bunker's Hill.

All ideas of reconciliation were now at an end, and hostilities soon commenced. On the 17th of June, 1775, was fought the battle of Bunker's Hill. And on the 2nd of July, Washington took command of the American army, which then amounted to seventeen thousand men. They were assembled on the spur of the occasion, and had but few tents and stores, no clothing, no military chest, and no general organization. They were collected from the various provinces, and were governed by their own militia laws. Out of this material, and under innumerable vexations and difficulties, he constructed his first army. No man was ever placed in a more embarrassing situation. His troops were raw and undisciplined; and the members of the Congress, from whom he received his commission, were not united among themselves. He had all the responsibility of the war, and yet had not sufficient means to prosecute it with vigor.

The English forces, at this time, were centred in Boston under the command of General Gage. They were greatly inferior in point of numbers to the American troops who surrounded them; but they were veterans, and among the best soldiers in the English army. Gage was succeeded in October by General Howe.

Invasion of Canada.

The first campaign was signalized by the invasion of Canada by the American troops, with the hope of wresting that province from the English, it being disaffected, and defended by an inconsiderable force. General Montgomery, with an army of three thousand men, advanced to Montreal, which surrendered. The fortresses of Crown Point and Ticonderoga had already been taken by Colonel Allen. But the person who most distinguished himself in this unfortunate expedition was Colonel Benedict Arnold, who, with a detachment of one thousand men, penetrated through the forests,

swamps, and mountains of Maine, beyond the sources of the Kennebec, and, in six weeks after his departure from Boston, arrived on the plains of Canada, opposite Quebec. He there effected a junction with the troops of Montgomery, and made an assault on the strongest fortress in America, defended by sixteen hundred men. The attack was unsuccessful, and Montgomery was killed. Arnold did not retire from the province, but remained encamped upon the Heights of Abraham. This enterprise, though a failure, was not without great moral results, since it showed to the English Government the singular bravery and intrepidity of the people it had undertaken to coerce.

Ch. 26 A. D. 1776.

Death of Montgomery.

The ministry now resolved upon vigorous measures, and, finding a difficulty in raising men, applied to the Landgrave of Hesse for seventeen thousand mercenaries. These, added to twenty-five thousand men enlisted in England, and the troops already sent to America, constituted a force of fifty-five thousand men — deemed amply sufficient to reduce the rebellious colonies.

In the mean time, General Howe was encamped in Boston with a force, including seamen, of eleven thousand men, and General Washington, with an army of twenty-eight thousand, including militia, was waiting to attack him. In February, 1776, he took possession of Dorchester Heights, which command the harbor. General Howe then found it expedient to evacuate Boston, and sailed for Halifax with his army, while Washington repaired to Philadelphia to deliberate with Congress.

Evacuation of Boston.

But Howe retired from Boston only to occupy New York; and when his arrangements were completed, he landed at Staten Island, waiting for the arrival of his brother, Lord Howe, with the expected reinforcements. By the middle of August they had all arrived, and his united forces now amounted to twenty-four thousand men. Washington's army, though it nominally numbered twenty thousand five hundred, was really composed of only about eleven thousand effective

Occupation of New York.

Ch. 26 men, and these were but imperfectly provided with arms and ammunition. Under these circumstances he was forced to
A. D. 1776. give battle to the English; and the result was disastrous. General Howe took possession of Long Island, the Americans evacuated New York, the city, shortly after, fell into the hands of the English, and Washington, with his diminished army, posted himself on Haerlem Heights.

Declaration of Independence.

But before the victory of Howe on Long Island was obtained, Congress had declared the Independence of the American States. This Declaration, made on the 4th of July, 1776, was received by the Americans, in all parts of the country, with unbounded enthusiasm.

The remainder of the campaign of 1776 was occupied by the belligerents in skirmishings, marchings, and countermarchings, in the States of New York and New Jersey, with small results, if we except the battles of Trenton and Princeton, which in some measure compensated the Americans for the disasters they had suffered.

Greatness of Washington.

The greatness of Washington now appeared, in the admirable prudence and patience he manifested during the winter. He had, for several months, a force which scarcely exceeded fifteen hundred men, and these suffered all manner of hardships and privations. After the first gush of enthusiasm had passed, it was found exceedingly difficult to enlist men, and still more difficult to pay those who had enlisted. Congress too, though, on the whole, harmonizing with the commander-in-chief, whom, for six months, it invested with almost dictatorial power, still did not fully appreciate the elevation of his character, and often threw great difficulties in his way. It, however, sent commissioners to France, to solicit money and arms; and, among others, the young Marquis de La Fayette was induced to join the American cause. He arrived in America in the spring of 1777, proved a most efficient general, and secured the confidence of the nation he assisted.

La Fayette.

The campaign of 1777 was marked by the evacuation of the Jerseys by the English, by the battles of Bennington and

Brandywine, by the capture of Philadelphia, and by the surrender of Burgoyne. Success, on the whole, was in favor of the Americans. They suffered a check at Brandywine, and they lost the most considerable city in the Union; but these disasters were more than compensated by the victory at Bennington and the capture of Burgoyne. This surrender, by which the Americans gained forty-two pieces of brass artillery, four thousand six hundred muskets, and an immense quantity of military stores, was the greatest disaster which the British troops had experienced, and it raised the hopes of the Colonists to the highest pitch. Indeed, it may be said to have decided the fate of the war, for it proved the impossibility of conquering the Americans. It showed that they fought under infinitely greater advantages, since it was in their power always to decline a battle, and to choose their ground. It showed, also, that the country presented difficulties which were insurmountable. "No man," said Lord Chatham, "thinks more highly of the virtues and valor of British troops than I do. I know that they can achieve anything except impossibilities. But the conquest of America is an impossibility."

Surrender of Burgoyne.

The winter which succeeded is memorable for the sufferings of the Americans encamped at Valley Forge, about twenty miles from Philadelphia. The army was miserably supplied with provisions and clothing, and great discontent appeared in various quarters. Out of eleven thousand eight hundred men, nearly three thousand were barefooted and otherwise destitute. But the sufferings of the army were not the only causes of solicitude to the commander-in-chief. The officers were discontented, and were not prepared, any more than the privates, to make permanent sacrifices. They were obliged to break in upon their private property, and were without any prospect of future relief.

Valley Forge.

Washington was willing to endure or to suffer anything, and nobly refused any payment for his own expenses; but, while he exhibited the rarest magnanimity, he did not expect

Perplexities of Washington.

Ch. 26 it from others, and he therefore urged Congress to provide for the pay of the officers, when the war should close. He looked upon human nature as it was, not as he wished it to be, and recognized the principles of self-interest as well as those of patriotism. It was his firm conviction, that a long and lasting war could not be sustained by the principle of patriotism alone; but that it required, in addition, the prospect of some reward. The members of the Congress did not generally agree with him in his views; they expected that officers would make greater sacrifices than others; but after a while, the plan of half-pay for life, proposed by Washington, was adopted by a small majority, though afterwards changed to half-pay for seven years. There was also a prejudice in many minds against a standing army, besides the jealousies and antipathies which existed between different sections of the Union. But Washington, with his rare practical good sense, combated all difficulties, removing the fears of the timid, and baffling the schemes of the selfish.

A. D. 1778.

Offer of conciliation rejected.

The army remained at Valley Forge till June, 1778. In the mean time, Lord North made another ineffectual effort to bring about a reconciliation. But he was too late. His offers might have been accepted at the commencement of the contest; but nothing short of complete independence would now satisfy the Americans, and this Lord North was not willing to concede. On the 18th of June, Sir Henry Clinton, who had succeeded Sir William Howe in command of the British forces, evacuated Philadelphia, the possession of which had proved of no service to the English, except as winter quarters for the troops.

Operations in the South.

The campaign of 1779 was not more decisive than that of the preceding year. Military operations were chiefly confined to the southern sections of the country, in which the English generally had the advantage. They overran the country, inflamed the hostility of the Indians, and destroyed considerable property. But as they gained no important victory, the war lingered on.

The campaign of 1780 is memorable for the desertion of General Arnold. Though not attended by important political results, it produced intense excitement. He was intrusted with the care of the fortress of West Point, which commanded the Hudson River; but, dissatisfied, extravagant, and unprincipled, he thought to mend his broken fortunes by surrendering it to the enemy, who occupied New York. His treason was discovered when his schemes were on the point of being accomplished; but he contrived to escape, and was made a brigadier-general in the service of the enemy. Public opinion loaded his name with ignominy, and posterity has not reversed the verdict of his indignant countrymen. Major André, who had volunteered to meet Arnold, was arrested, and after trial by court martial, hanged as a spy, Washington lamenting his fate, but inexorably refusing to alter or modify the sentence.

General Arnold.

Major André.

The great event in the campaign of 1781 was the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, at Yorktown. Lord Cornwallis, who was an able commander, had been successful in the south, although vigorously and skilfully opposed by General La Fayette. But he had at last to contend with the main body of the American army, as well as with the French forces, the combined armies amounting to above twelve thousand men. He was compelled to surrender to this superior force; and seven thousand prisoners, with all their baggage and stores, fell into the hands of the victors, on the 19th of October, 1781.

Surrender of Cornwallis.

After this capitulation, the conviction was general that the war would soon be terminated. General La Fayette obtained leave to return to France, and the recruiting service languished. The war, nevertheless, was continued until 1783; without, however, being signalized by any great events. On the 30th of November, 1782, preliminary articles of peace were signed at Paris, by which Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States; the whole country south of the lakes and east of the Mississippi being ceded to them, and the right of fishing on the Banks of Newfoundland.

Ch. 26 — A. D. 1783.

On the 25th of November, 1783, the British troops evacuated New York; and, shortly after, the American army was disbanded. On the 4th of December, Washington made his farewell address to his officers; and, on the 23rd of December, he resigned his commission into the hands of the body from which he received it; having discharged the trust reposed in him in a manner which secured the gratitude of his country, and has since gained for him a great and enduring name.

Lord George Gordon's riots.

Contemporaneous with the American war were discontents in Ireland, and riots in England, the latter fomented by the fanatical zeal of Lord George Gordon, against the Roman Catholics. In the course of these riots the prisons were emptied of felons and debtors, and Lord Mansfield's splendid residence and library were destroyed. Martial law was at last proclaimed. Five hundred persons were killed in the attempt to suppress the rioters, and the infatuated young nobleman was committed to the Tower. This disgraceful outbreak, which occurred in the year 1780, served as a warning to many, by exhibiting the dangerous excesses which usually attend popular insurrections.

Accession of Pitt.

In 1783 Mr. Pitt became Prime Minister. He was the second son of the Earl of Chatham, and at a very early age had greatly distinguished himself at the University of Cambridge. In 1780, at the age of twenty-one, he entered parliament, and immediately assumed an active part in public affairs. His first speech astonished all who heard him, notwithstanding that great expectations were formed concerning his power. He was made Chancellor of the Exchequer at the age of twenty-three, and at a time too when the nation required a finance minister of the greatest experience.

His peculiar talents.

From his first appearance, Mr. Pitt took a commanding position as a parliamentary orator; nor has he, perhaps, on the whole, in that character ever been surpassed. His peculiar talents fitted him for office, and the circumstances of the times were such as were calculated to develop all the energies he possessed. He was, unquestionably, the boldest minister

that England has produced, and he exercised, to the close of his career, in spite of the opposition of such men as Burke, Fox, and Sheridan, an overwhelming influence. He was born to command, and although so young, he assumed the reins of government with a perfect consciousness of his ability to rule.

Under his ministry Lord Thurlow was chancellor, Lord Gower president of the council, the Duke of Richmond lord privy seal, Lords Carmarthen and Sydney secretaries of state, and Lord Howe first lord of the admiralty. These were his chief associates in resisting a powerful opposition, and in regulating the affairs of a vast empire. The policy of his course is not here to be discussed. That it was lofty and patriotic, cannot be disputed. He never seems to have doubted, that England by her energy and skill would supply the world with her manufactures, and so, in spite of her debt, make all nations contribute to her glory and wealth.

Leading events of his administration.

But we must hasten to consider the leading events which characterized his administration. These were the troubles in Ireland, parliamentary reform, the aggrandizement of the East India Company, the trial of Hastings, debates on the slave trade, and the war with France in consequence of the French Revolution.

Difficulties in Ireland.

The difficulties with Ireland did not become alarming until the French Revolution had created a spirit of discontent and agitation in all parts of Great Britain. Soon after Mr. Pitt's accession to power, Mr. Flood, a distinguished member of the Irish House of Commons, brought in a bill for parliamentary reform, which, after a long debate, was negatived. Though defeated in the House, its advocates out of doors were not cast down. A large delegation of the people met at Dublin, and petitioned Parliament for the redress of grievances. Mr. Pitt considered the matter with proper attention, and endeavored to free the commerce of Ireland from the restraints under which it labored. But, in so doing, he excited the jealousy of British merchants and manufacturers, and they induced

Ch. 26 him to remodel his propositions for the relief of Ireland, which were then adopted.

A. D. 1791 to 1797. Tranquillity was thus preserved until the year 1791, when there appeared at Belfast the plan of an association, under the name of the *United Irishmen*, whose professed object was a radical reform of all the evils which had existed in Ireland since its connection with England. The association soon extended throughout the island, and numbered an immense body, both of Protestants and Catholics, who were disaffected to the Government. In consequence of this state of things the English ministry made many concessions, and Catholics were allowed to practise law, to intermarry with Protestants, and to obtain an unrestrained education. But Parliament also took measures to prevent the assembling of any convention of the people, and in view of a possible outbreak augmented the militia.

Society of United Irishmen.

Disturbances soon took place, and the United Irishmen began to contemplate an entire separation from England. In consequence of these commotions, the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, and a military government was enforced with all its rigor. The disaffected *pretended* to submit, but only laid still deeper schemes, and extended their affiliations. In May, 1797, the number of men enrolled by the union in Ulster alone was one hundred thousand, and their organization was perfect. The timely discovery of this conspiracy prevented the most fearful of contests. Nevertheless insurrection broke out, and in the county of Wexford was really formidable. Great barbarities were committed on both sides, until the arrival of Lord Cornwallis, as Viceroy, secured tranquillity. A few months afterwards, a French force of eleven hundred men landed at Killala, and were joined by a part of the peasantry. But the attempt was vain; the French general surrendered, and his rebel auxiliaries were slaughtered. In every sense the rebellion miserably failed; but unhappily, not until fifty thousand persons had perished, and property to the amount of a million sterling had been destroyed.

Conspiracy discovered.

Ch. 26

A. D. 1800.

In June, 1800, the Union of Ireland and England was effected, on the same basis as that between England and Scotland. It was warmly opposed by some of the more patriotic of the Irish statesmen, and only carried by corruption and bribery. By this union, absenteeism was nearly doubled; and the political importance of Ireland was greatly reduced. But on the other hand, the bond of union which united the two countries was strengthened, and the nation subsided into a state of tranquillity. Twenty-eight peers and one hundred commoners were admitted into the English parliament.

Union between England and Ireland.

Notwithstanding the suppression of the rebellion of 1798, only five years elapsed before another was contemplated — the result mainly of the spread of republican principles. These treasonable designs were, however, miserably supported, and the feeble effort immediately failed. The leaders were arrested, tried, and executed. The speech of Emmet, before his execution, has been much admired for its patriotic spirit and pensive eloquence. His grand mistake consisted in supposing that, by violent measures, he could benefit his country, and overturn a settled government.

A. D. 1782 to 1785.

The first plan for Parliamentary Reform was brought forward by Mr. Pitt, in 1782, before he was Prime Minister, and it was grounded on the fact, that a large number of members represented no important interest, and were dependent on the minister. This movement was successfully opposed. In May, 1783, he brought in another bill to add one hundred members to the House of Commons, and to abolish a proportionate number of the smaller boroughs. This plan, though supported by Fox, was negatived by a large majority. In 1785 he made a third attempt to secure a reform of Parliament, and again failed; and with this last attempt ended all his efforts for this object. He altered his opinions when he fully perceived the bearing of the subject upon other agitating questions. Nor can we wonder at the change which he and others underwent, when it is remembered how many

Unsuccessful measure for parliamentary reform.

Ch. 26 advocates of Parliamentary Reform were then associated with men of infidel and dangerous principles.

A. D. 1788. The trial of Hastings, which commenced in 1788, and lingered on till 1795, together with the difficulties which grew out of the ever enlarging possessions of the East India Company, must now come under notice.

Warren Hastings in India.

Warren Hastings had continued the conquests which Clive had so successfully begun. He went to India in 1750, at the age of seventeen, as a clerk in the service of the Company—then merely a commercial corporation. His talents and sagacity insured his success. He was gradually promoted, and, in 1772, was appointed head of the Government in Bengal.

To enrich the Company, and to extend its possessions, became the object of the Governor-General. He succeeded; but success brought upon him the imprecations of the natives and the indignant rebukes of his own countrymen. In less than two years after he had assumed the government, he had added four hundred thousand pounds to the annual income of the Company, besides obtaining for them nearly a million in ready money. We can, however, only notice that portion of his administration which led to his trial in England.

His conquests in Bengal.

The great event which marked his government was the war with Hyder Ali, the Mohammedan Sovereign of Mysore. The province of Bengal and the Carnatic had been, for some time, under the protection of the English. Adjoining the Carnatic, in the centre of the peninsula, were the dominions of Hyder Ali. Had Hastings been Governor of Madras, he would have conciliated him, or vigorously encountered him as an enemy But the authorities at Madras had done neither. They provoked him to hostilities, and, with an army of ninety thousand men, he invaded the Carnatic. British India was on the verge of ruin. Hyder Ali was everywhere triumphant, and only a few fortified places remained to the English.

Hastings, when he heard of the calamity, instantly adopted the most vigorous measures. He settled his difficulties with

the Mahrattas; he suspended the incapable Governor of Fort George, and sent Sir Eyre Coote to oppose the great Mohammedan prince who threatened to subvert the English power in India.

But the Governor had not the money which was necessary to carry on an expensive war with the most formidable enemy the English ever encountered in the East. He therefore resolved, in 1781, to plunder the richest and most sacred city of India—Benares. It was the seat of Indian learning and devotion, and contained five hundred thousand people. Its temple, as seen from the Ganges, was the most imposing in the Eastern world, while its bazaars were filled with the most valuable and rare of Indian commodities; with the muslins of Bengal, the shawls of Cashmere, the sabres of Oude, and the silks of its own looms.

Plunder of Benares.

This rich capital was governed by a prince nominally subject to the Great Mogul, but who was dependent on the Nabob of Oude, a large province north of the Ganges, near the Himalayah Mountains. Benares and its territories, being oppressed by the Nabob of Oude, sought the protection of the British. Their protection was, of course, readily extended; but it was fatal to the independence of Benares. The alliance with the English was like the protection Rome extended to Greece when threatened by Asia, and which ended in the subjection of both Greece and Asia. The Rajah of Benares became the vassal of the Company, and, therefore, was obliged to furnish money for the protection he enjoyed.

Its wealth.

But the tribute which the Rajah of Benares paid did not satisfy Hastings. He exacted still greater sums, which led to an insurrection and ultimate conquest. The fair domains of Cheyte Sing, the lord of Benares, were, in 1782, added to the dominions of the Company, together with an increased revenue of two hundred thousand pounds a year. The treasure of the Rajah amounted to two hundred and fifty thousand pounds, and this was divided as prize money among the English.

Conquest of Benares.

The rapacious Governor-General did not obtain the treasure

Ch. 26 which he expected to find at Benares, so he resolved to rob the Princesses of Oude, who had been left with immense treasures on the death of Surajah Dowlah, the Nabob Vizier of the Grand Mogul. The only pretext which Hastings could find was, that the insurrection at Benares had produced disturbances at Oude, which disturbances were imputed to the Princesses. Great barbarities were inflicted in order to secure these treasures; but the robbers were successful, and immense sums flowed into the treasury of the Company. By these iniquities, the Governor found means to conduct the war in the Carnatic successfully, and a treaty was concluded with Tippoo, the son of Hyder Ali, by which the Company reigned without a rival on the great Indian peninsula.

A. D. 1788.

Robbery of the Princesses of Oude.

In 1785, when peace was restored to India, and the Company's servants had accumulated immense fortunes, Hastings returned to England. But the iniquities he had practised excited great indignation among those statesmen who regarded justice and humanity as better supports to a government than violence and rapine.

Foremost among these patriots was Edmund Burke. He had long been a member of the select committee to investigate Indian affairs; he had bestowed great attention upon them, and he fully understood the course which Hastings had pursued.

Trial of Hastings.

Through his influence, an inquiry into the conduct of the late Governor-General was instituted, and he was accordingly impeached at the bar of the House of Lords. Mr. Pitt permitted matters to take their natural course; but the King, the Lord Chancellor Thurlow, the Ministers generally, and the Directors of the East India Company espoused his cause. They regarded him as a very great man, whose rule had been glorious to the nation, in spite of the mistakes and cruelties which had marked his government. He had added an empire to the British crown, educed order out of anarchy, and organized a system of administration which, in its essential features, has remained to this time. He enriched the Company, while

he did not enrich himself; for he easily might have accumulated a fortune of three millions of pounds. And he moreover contrived, in spite of his extortions and conquests, to secure the respect of the native population, whose national and religious prejudices he endeavored not to shock.

Its importance.

The trial was at Westminster Hall, the hall which had witnessed the inauguration of thirty kings. And he was a culprit not unworthy of that great tribunal before which he was summoned—"a tribunal which had pronounced sentence on Strafford, and pardon on Somers"—the tribunal before which royalty itself had been called to account. Hastings had ruled, with absolute sway, a country which was more populous and more extensive than any of the kingdoms of Europe, and had gained a fame which was bounded only by the unknown countries of the globe. He was defended by three men who subsequently became the three first judges of the land, and he was encouraged by the appearance and sympathetic smiles of the highest of the realm.

Edmund Burke.

But greater than all were the mighty statesmen who conducted the prosecution. First among them in character and genius was Edmund Burke, who, from the time that he first spoke in the House of Commons, in 1766, had been a prominent member, and had, at length, secured greater fame than any of his contemporaries, Pitt alone excepted, not merely as an orator, but as an enlightened statesman, a philosopher, and a philanthropist. He excelled all the great men with whom he was associated in the variety of his powers; he was a poet even while a boy; a penetrating philosopher, critic, and historian before the age of thirty; a statesman of unrivalled moral wisdom; an orator whose speeches have been read with increasing admiration in every succeeding age; a judge of the fine arts to whose opinions Reynolds submitted; and a writer on various subjects, in which he displayed not only vast knowledge, but a style of matchless beauty and force. All the great men of his age—Johnson, Reynolds, Goldsmith, Garrick, Pitt, Fox, Sheridan, Windham, North, Thurlow,

Ch. 26 A. D. 1788. Parr—scholars, critics, divines, and statesmen—bore testimony to his commanding genius and his singular moral worth, to his hatred of vice, and his passionate love of virtue.

Charles James Fox.

Next to Burke, among the prosecutors of Hastings, for greatness and popularity, was Charles James Fox; inferior to Burke in knowledge, imagination, and moral power, but superior in all the arts of debate, the most logical and accomplished forensic speaker which that age of orators produced. His father, Lord Holland, had been the rival of the great Chatham, and he himself was opposed, nearly the whole of his public life, to the younger Pitt. His political principles were like those of Burke until the French Revolution, which he at first admired. He was emphatically the man of the people, easy of access, social in his habits, free in his intercourse, without reserve or haughtiness, generous, magnanimous, and conciliatory. He was unsurpassed for logical acuteness, and for bursts of overpowering passion. He reached high political station, although his habits deprived him, in some particulars, of the respect of those great men with whom he was associated.

Richard Brinsley Sheridan.

Richard Brinsley Sheridan, another of the public accusers of Hastings, was a different man from either Burke or Fox. He was born in Ireland, but was educated at Harrow, and first distinguished himself by writing plays. In 1776, on the retirement of Garrick, he became manager of Drury Lane Theatre; and shortly after produced the "School for Scandal," which placed him on the summit of dramatic fame. In 1780 he entered Parliament, and, when Hastings was impeached, was in the height of his reputation, both as a writer and orator. His power consisted in brilliant declamation and sparkling wit, and his speech in relation to the Princesses of Oude produced an impression almost without a parallel in ancient or modern times. Mr. Burke's admiration was sincere and unbounded; Fox thought it too florid and rhetorical. His fame now rests on his dramas. His life was unworthy of his powers, in consequence of his extravagance, his reckless-

ness in incurring debts, and his dissipated habits, which disorganized his moral character and undermined the friendships which his brilliant talents at first secured to him.

But in spite of the indignation which these illustrious orators excited, Hastings, after a trial which lasted eight years, was acquitted in consequence of the change of public opinion; and, above all, in view of the great services which he had really rendered to his country. The expenses of his trial nearly ruined him; but the East India Company granted him an annual income of four thousand pounds, which he spent in ornamenting and enriching Daylesford, the seat which had once belonged to his family, and which he purchased after his return.

Acquittal of Hastings.

Increasing intercourse with India brought to light many evils connected with its Government; and, in 1784, acts were passed which gave the nation a more direct control over the East India Company—the most gigantic monopoly the world has ever seen. That a company of merchants in Leadenhall Street should exercise an unlimited power over an empire larger than the whole of Europe, with the exception of Russia, was an anomaly that at length aroused the English nation. Mr. Pitt accordingly brought in a bill, which provided that the affairs of the Company should be partly managed by a Board of Control, partly by the Court of Directors, and partly by a general meeting of the stockholders of the Company. The Board of Control was intrusted to five privy counsellors, one of whom was Secretary of State. It was afterwards composed of a president, such members of the privy council as the King should select, and a secretary. This board superintends and regulates all civil, military, and revenue offices, political negotiations, and general despatches. The Board of Directors, composed of twenty-four men, six of whom are annually elected, has the nomination of the Governor General, and the appointment of all civil and military officers. These two boards operate as a check upon each other.

Legislation respecting India.

East India Company.

The first Governor General, by the new constitution, was

Ch. 26 A. D. 1786 to 1798.

Lord Cornwallis, a nobleman of great military experience and elevated moral worth. Still, he was not fortunate. He did not fully understand the institutions of India, or the genius of the people. He was soon called to embark in the various contests which divided the different native princes, and with the usual result. The simple principle of territorial acquisition, was to defend the cause of the feebler party. The stronger party soon conquered, became a province of the East India Company, while the weaker remained under protection, until, after having been driven to rebellion, it too was subdued.

Lord Cornwallis.

When Lord Cornwallis was sent to India, in 1786, the East India Company had obtained possession of Bengal, a part of Bahar, the Benares district of Allahabad, part of Orissa, the Circars, Bombay, and the Jaghire of the Carnatic — a district of one hundred miles along the coast. The other great Indian powers, unconquered by the English, were the Mahrattas, who occupied the centre of India, from Delhi to the Krishna, and from the Bay of Bengal to the Arabian Sea; Golconda; the western parts of the Carnatic; Mysore, Oude, and the country of the Sikhs. Of the potentates who ruled over these extensive provinces, the Sultan of Mysore, Tippoo Saib, was the most powerful, although the Mahrattas country was the largest.

Seringapatam invested.

The conduct of Tippoo, who inherited his father's prejudices against the English, excited the suspicions of Lord Cornwallis, and a desperate war was the result, in which the Sultan showed the most daring courage. In 1792, the English general invested the formidable fortress of Seringapatam, with sixteen thousand Europeans and thirty thousand sepoys. Tippoo, after the loss of twenty-three thousand of his troops, to save this fortress, made peace with Lord Cornwallis, by the payment of four millions of pounds, and the surrender of half his dominions. Lord Cornwallis, after the close of this war, returned home, and was succeeded by Sir John Shore; and he, in 1796, by the Marquis Wellesley, under

whose administration the war with Tippoo was renewed, chiefly in consequence of the intrigues of the Sultan with the French at Pondicherry, to regain his dominions. In 1799 Seringapatam was taken by assault, and Tippoo was slain; the dynasty of Hyder Ali ceased to reign, and the East India Company took possession of the whole southern peninsula. A subsequent war with the Mahratta powers completely established the British supremacy in India. Delhi, the capital of the Great Mogul, fell into the hands of the English, and the Emperor himself became a stipendiary of the East India Company.

Marquis of Wellesley.

No new conquests took place until 1817, when the Earl of Moira, afterwards Marquis of Hastings, made war on the Pindarries, who were bands of freebooters in Central India. As they were assisted by several native powers, the Governor General demanded considerable cessions of territory. In 1819, the British effected a settlement at Singapore, by which a lucrative commerce was secured to Great Britain.

Lord Hastings was succeeded by the Earl of Amherst, under whose administration the Burmese war commenced, and by which large territories, between Bengal and China, were added to the British empire in 1826.

Final overthrow of the Mogul empire.

On the overthrow of the Mogul empire, the kingdom of the Sikhs, in the northern part of India, and that of the Affghans, lying west of the Indus, arose in importance—kingdoms formerly subject to Persia. The former, with all its dependent provinces, has recently been conquered and annexed to the overgrown dominions of the Company.

In 1833, the charter of the East India Company expired, and a total change of system was the result. The Company was deprived of its exclusive right of trade, the commerce with India and China was freely thrown open to all the world, and the possessions and rights of the Company were ceded to the nation for an annual annuity of six hundred and thirty thousand pounds.

Thus has England come into possession of one of the oldest

Ch. 23 to the throne of Spain, the discontents of Hungary, and the victories of Marlborough and Eugene. Most of these have been already alluded to, especially in the chapter on Louis XIV., and, therefore, will not be further discussed.

A. D. 1740 to 1780.

The most important event connected with Austrian affairs, as distinct from those of France, England, and Holland, was the Hungarian war. Hungary was not a province of Austria, but a distinct State. In 1526, the crowns of the two kingdoms were united, like those of England and Hanover under George I. But the Hungarians were always impatient of the rule of the Emperor of Germany, and, in the space of a century, arose five times in defence of their liberties.

Hungarian revolution.

In 1667, one of these insurrections took place, occasioned by the aggressive policy and government of Leopold. So soon as the Emperor was aware of the conspiracy of his Hungarian subjects, he adopted vigorous measures, quartered thirty thousand additional troops in Hungary, loaded the people with taxes, occupied the principal fortresses, banished the chiefs, and changed the constitution of the country. He also attempted to suppress Protestantism, and committed all the excesses of military despotism. These accumulated oppressions drove a brave but turbulent people to despair, and both Catholics and Protestants united for their common safety. The insurgents were assisted by the Prince of Transylvania, and were supplied with money and provisions by the French. They also found a noble defender in Emeric Tekeli, a young Hungarian noble, who hated Austria as intensely as Hannibal hated Rome, and who, at the head of twenty thousand men, defended his country against the Emperor.

Emeric Tekeli.

Tekeli, however, was gradually insulated from those who had formed the great support of his cause, and, in consequence of jealousies which Leopold had fomented between him and the Turks, was arrested, and sent in chains to Constantinople. New victories followed the imperial army, and Leopold succeeded in making the crown of Hungary, hitherto elective, hereditary in his family. He then insti-

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Genius of Mr. Pitt.

Ch. 26 and most powerful of the Oriental empires, containing a
A. D. population of one hundred and thirty millions of people,
1833. speaking various languages, and wedded irrecoverably to different social and religious institutions. The native and hereditary princes of provinces, separately larger and more populous than Great Britain itself, are divested of all but the shadow of power, and receive stipends from the East India Company. The Emperor of Delhi, the Nabobs of Bengal and the Carnatic, the Rajahs of Tanjore and Benares, the Princes of the house of Tippoo, and other princes, receive, indeed, an annual support of more than a million sterling; but their power has passed away. An empire two thousand miles from east to west, eighteen hundred from north to south, and containing more square miles than all the States between the Mississippi and the Atlantic Ocean, has fallen into the hands of the English.

Power of the Anglo-Indian Empire.

A. D. 1787. But it is time to hasten to the consideration of the remaining subjects connected with the administration of William Pitt.

In the year 1787, William Wilberforce, who represented the great county of York, brought forward, in the House of Commons, a motion for the abolition of the slave trade. The first public movement against this infamous traffic was made by the Quakers in the Southern States of America, who presented petitions for that purpose to their respective legislatures. Their brethren in England followed their example, and presented similar petitions to the House of Commons. A society was then formed, and a considerable sum raised to collect information relative to the traffic, and to support the expense of an application to parliament. Resistance was of course made by the merchants and planters, but Mr. Wilberforce, greatly interested in the investigation, brought the matter before parliament, and urged the abolition of the trade with overwhelming arguments and eloquence. Mr. Fox, Mr. Burke, Mr. William Smith, and Mr. Whitbread supported him. Mr. Pitt defended the cause of the negro with great

Discussions on the Slave Trade.

eloquence; but the House was not then in favor of the measure proposed, nor was it carried until Mr. Fox and his friends came into power.

In the year 1793, war again broke out with France, in consequence of her propagation of revolutionary principles. To the prosecution of this war, Mr. Pitt, who continued to manage the helm of State until 1806, directed all his energies; and no other event of importance took place during his administration.

His genius was signally displayed in the financial skill by which he extricated the nation from the great embarrassments which had resulted from the American war, and at the same time provided means to prosecute still more expensive campaigns against Napoleon. He had unrivalled talent in managing the House of Commons, was always ready in debate, and to the last retained the confidence of the nation. To him may undoubtedly be ascribed an enormous increase of the national debt; and if taxes are the greatest calamity which can afflict a people, then Pitt has entailed burdens which may well call forth lamentation. But if the glory and welfare of a nation consists in other things—in independence, patriotism, and rational liberty; if it was then desirable, above all material considerations, to check the current of revolutionary excess, and to oppose the career of a man who aimed to bring all the nations of Europe under the yoke of an absolute military despotism—then Mr. Pitt and his government should be contemplated in a very different light.

Genius of Mr. Pitt.

To that mighty contest which developed the energies of this great man, and revealed the genius of a still more remarkable one, we must now turn our attention.

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CHAPTER XXVII.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

Ch. 27

A. D. 1789 to 1795.

It is impossible to describe, in a few pages, the many great and varied events which are connected with the French Revolution, or even to allude to all the prominent ones. The causes of this great movement are even more interesting than the developments.

The question has often been asked, Could Louis XIV. have prevented the catastrophe which overturned his throne? We reply, he might, perhaps, have delayed it; but as it was an inevitable event, it would have happened sooner or later.

Accumulated evils.

There were evils in the government of France, and in the condition of the people, so overwhelming and melancholy, that they must eventually have produced an outbreak. Had Richelieu never been minister; had the Fronde never taken place; had Louis XIV. and XV. never reigned; had there been no such women as disgraced the Court of France in the eighteenth century; had there been no tyrannical kings, no oppressive aristocracy, no grievous taxes, no national embarrassments, no infidel writings, and no discontented people,—then Louis XVI. might have reigned at Versailles, as Louis XV. had done before him. But the accumulated grievances of two centuries called imperatively for redress, and nothing short of a revolution could have removed them.

Now, what were those evils and those circumstances which, of necessity, produced the most violent revolutionary storm in the annals of the world?

Causes of the Revolution.

The causes of the French Revolution may be classed under five heads: First, the influence of the writings of infidel

philosophers; second, the diffusion of ideas of popular rights; third, the burdens of the people, which made these abstract ideas of right a mockery; fourth, the absurd infatuation of the Court and the nobles; fifth, the derangement of the finances, which clogged the wheels of government, and led to the assembling of the States General. There were also other causes, but the above-mentioned are the most prominent.

Writings of philosophers.

Of the philosophers whose writings contributed to produce this revolution, there were four who exerted a remarkable influence. These were Helvetius, Voltaire, Rousseau, and Diderot.

Helvetius was a man of station and wealth, who published, in 1758, a book, in which he carried out the principles of Condillac and of other philosophers of the sensational, or, as it is sometimes called, the sensuous school. He boldly advocated a system of undisguised selfishness. He maintained that man owed his superiority over the lower animals simply to the higher organization of his body. Proceeding from this point, he asserted, further, that every faculty and emotion are derived from sensation; that all minds are originally equal; that pleasure is the only good, and self-interest the only ground of morality. The materialism of Helvetius was the mere revival of Pagan Epicureanism; but it was popular, and his work, called *De l'Esprit*, made a great sensation. It was congenial with the taste of a Court and a generation that tolerated Madame de Pompadour. But the Parliament of Paris condemned it, and pronounced it derogatory to human nature, inasmuch as it confined our faculties to animal sensibility, and destroyed the distinction between virtue and vice.

Materialism of Helvetius.

But the fame of Helvetius was eclipsed by the brilliant career of Voltaire, who exercised a more powerful influence on his age than any other man. He is the apostle of French infidelity, and was the great oracle of the superficial thinkers of his nation and time. He was born in 1694, and early appeared upon the stage. He was a favorite at Versailles, and a companion of Frederic the Great—as great an egotist as he,

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though his egotism was displayed in a different way. He was originally made for Courts, and not for the people, with whom he had no sympathy, although the tendency of his writings was democratic. In all his satirical sallies, he professed to respect authority. But he was never in earnest, was sceptical, insincere, and superficial. It would not be rendering him justice to deny that he had great genius. But his genius was exercised only in amusing a vainglorious people, or turning everything into ridicule; pulling down, but substituting nothing instead. He was a modern Lucian, and his satirical mockery destroyed reverence both for God and truth. He despised and defied the future, and that future has already rendered a verdict on him which can never be reversed, —that he was vain, selfish, shallow, and cold.

Genius and defects of Voltaire.

But, with all his superficial criticism, he had a keen perception of what was false, a quick eye for what are now called *shams;* and it cannot be denied that, in a certain sense, he had a love of truth, yet not of truth in its highest development, as positive or real. Negation and denial suited him better, and suited the age in which he lived better; hence he was a "representative man," was an exponent of his age, and led the age. He hated the Jesuits, chiefly because they advocated a blind authority; and he strove to crush Christianity, because its professors were so often a disgrace to it, while its best members were martyrs and victims. Voltaire did not, like Helvetius, propose any new system of philosophy, but he strove to make all systems absurd. He set the ball of Atheism in motion, and others followed in a bolder track; pushing, not his principles, for he had none, but his spirit, into the extreme of mockery and negation. Such a course unsettled the popular faith both in religion and laws, and made men at once indifferent to the future, and careless as to their present moral obligations.

Absence of all principle.

Rousseau.

A very different man was Rousseau. He was not a mocker, or a leveller, or a satirist, or an Atheist. He resembled Voltaire only in one respect—in egotism. He was not so learned

as Voltaire, did not write so much, was not so highly honored or esteemed. But he had more genius, and exercised a greater influence on posterity. He was more subtle and more dangerous; for he led astray people of generous impulses and enthusiastic dispositions, who had but little intelligence or experience. He abounded in extravagant admiration of what he called unsophisticated nature; professed to love the simple and earnest; affected extraordinary friendship and sympathy; and was most enthusiastic in his sentimental rhapsodies. Voltaire had no cant; Rousseau was full of it. Voltaire was the father of Danton; Rousseau of Robespierre, that sentimental murderer who, as a judge, was too conscientious to hang a criminal, but sufficiently unscrupulous to destroy a king. The absurdities of Rousseau can be detected in the ravings of ultra Transcendentalists, in the extravagance of Fourrierism, and in the mock philanthropy of some modern apostles of light.

Character of his writings.

The whole mental and physical constitution of the man was diseased, and his actions were consequently inconsistent with his sentiments. He gave the kiss of friendship, and it proved the token of treachery; he expatiated on simplicity and earnestness in most bewitching language, but was himself a hypocrite, a seducer, and a liar. He was always breathing raptures of affection, yet never succeeded in keeping a friend; he was constantly denouncing the selfishness and vanity of the world, and yet was miserable without its rewards and praises. No man was more dependent on society, yet no man ever professed to hold it in deeper contempt. No man ever had a prouder spirit, yet no man ever affected a more abject humility. He dilated with apparent rapture on disinterested love, and yet left his own children to neglect and poverty. He poisoned the weak and susceptible by pouring out streams of unholy passion in eloquent and exciting language, under the pretence of unburdening his own soul and revealing his own sorrows. He was always talking about philanthropy and generosity, and yet seldom bestowed a

His hypocrisy and wickedness.

Ch. 27 charity. No man was ever more eloquent in paradox, or sublime in absurdity. He spent his life in gilding what is corrupt, and in glossing over what is impure. The great moral effect of his writings was to make men commit crimes under the name of patriotism, and lead them to indulge in selfish passion under the name of love.

A. D. 1715 to 1774.

But more powerful than either of these false prophets, in immediate influence, at least, was Diderot; the distinguished leader of a school of bold and avowed infidels, who united open Atheism with a fierce democracy. The Encyclopædists, of whom Diderot was the representative, professed to know everything, to explain everything, and to teach everything. They discovered that there was no God, and taught that truth was a delusion, and virtue but a name. They were learned in mathematical, statistical, and physical science, but threw contempt on elevated moral wisdom, on the lessons of experience, and on the eternal truths of divine revelation. They advocated all kinds of changes, experiments, and impracticable reforms. They preached a gospel of social rights, inflamed the people with a disgust of their condition, and filled them with the belief that wisdom and virtue resided in congregated masses.

Atheism of Diderot.

Folly of the Encyclopædists.

They incessantly boasted of the greatness of philosophy, and the obsolete character of Christianity. They believed that successive developments of human nature, without the aid of influences foreign to itself, would gradually raise society to a state of perfection. What they could not explain by their logical formularies, they utterly discarded. They denied the reality of a God in heaven, and talked about the divinity of man on earth. They made truth to reside with passionate majorities; and virtue with felons and vagabonds, if affiliated into great associations. They flattered the people that they were wiser and better than any class above them; that rulers were tyrants; that clergy were hypocrites; that the great moral oracles of former days were fools and liars. To sum up the French Encyclopædists in a few words, "they made

Nature, in her outward manifestations, to be the foundation of all great researches, man to be but a mass of organization, mind the development of our sensations, morality to consist in self-interest, and God to be but the diseased fiction of an unenlightened age. The whole intellect, being concentrated on the outward and material, gave rise, perhaps, to some improvements in physical science; but religion was disowned, morality degraded, and man made to be but the feeble link in the great chain of events by which Nature is inevitably accomplishing her blind designs." From such influences, what could we expect but infidelity, madness, anarchy, and crime?

Diffusion of Democratic ideas.

A second cause of the French Revolution was the diffusion of ideas of democratic liberty. Rousseau was a republican in politics, as he was a sentimentalist in religion. And his republicanism was all but justified by the great practical abuses under which the people groaned. Hence, the real and physical evils which the people of France endured, had no small effect in producing the revolution. Abstract ideas prepared the way, and sustained the souls of the oppressed; but it was the absolute burdens which they bore, that roused them to resistance.

Feudal evils.

These evils were so great, that general discontent prevailed among the middle and lower classes throughout the kingdom. The agricultural population was fettered by game laws and odious privileges granted to the aristocracy. "Game of the most destructive kind, such as wild boars and herds of deer, were permitted to go at large through spacious districts, in order that the gentry might hunt as in a savage wilderness. Numerous edicts prohibited weeding, lest young partridges should be disturbed; and mowing of hay, lest their eggs should be destroyed. Complaints arising out of the infraction of these edicts were carried before courts, where every species of oppression and fraud prevailed. Fines were imposed at every change of property and at every sale. The people were compelled to grind their corn at their landlord's mill, to press their grapes in his press, and to bake their bread in his oven." In consequence of these feudal laws and customs, the people

Ch. 27 were very poor, their houses dark and comfortless, their dress ragged and miserable, their food coarse and scanty. Not half of the enormous taxes which they paid reached the royal treasury. Offices were indefinitely multiplied. The governing classes despised the people. Their cry was unheard in the courts of justice, while the tear of sorrow was unnoticed amid the pageantry of the great, whose extravagance, insolence, and pride were only surpassed by the misery and degradation of the unfortunate beings on whose toils they lived. Justice was bought and sold as a commodity, and the decisions of judges were influenced by the magnitude of the bribes which were offered them. Besides feudal taxes, the clergy imposed additional burdens, and swarmed wherever there was plunder to be obtained. All motive to frugality and industry was taken away. Everything beyond the merest necessaries of life was seized by various tax-gatherers. Two-thirds of the earnings of the peasant went in one form or other to the King. Nor was there any appeal from a system of taxation, which ground down the middle and lower classes, while the clergy and the nobles were entirely exempt.

A. D. 1715 to 1774.

Oppression of the poor.

Nor did the rich proprietor live upon his estates. He was generally a non-resident, and squandered in the cities the money which was extorted from his dependents. He took no interest in the condition of the peasantry, to whom he was not united by any common ties. As a landlord, he was cruel, haughty, and selfish; irritating by his insolence while he oppressed by his injustice. All situations in the army, the navy, the church, the court, the bench, and in diplomacy, were exclusively filled by a privileged class, of whom there were one hundred and fifty thousand; a class insolent, haughty, effeminate, and untaxed, who disdained useful employments, and regarded all but themselves as unworthy to enjoy rights, which God designed should be possessed by the whole human race.

Character of the aristocracy.

Further, the privileges and pursuits of the recently deceased monarch had not passed unnoticed. Louis XV. had squan-

dered twenty millions of pounds sterling in pleasures too ignominious to be even named in the public accounts. He could at any time send any one in his dominions to rot in prison, without a hearing or a trial. The odious *lettre de cachet* could at once consign the most powerful noble to a dungeon. The lives and property of the people had been at his absolute disposal, and neither he nor his mistresses had scrupled to exercise that power with thoughtless, and sometimes inhuman cruelty.

Financial disorder.

Still these evils, great as they were, would have ended only in disaffection, had not the royal finances been deranged. For so long as ministers could obtain money, there was no immediate danger of revolution. An army, if regularly paid and well treated, will long support an absolute throne. But at last it became impossible to raise a sufficient revenue for pleasure and for war. The annual deficit was one hundred and ninety million francs a year, and as the greater the deficit, the greater was the taxation, the popular discontent of course increased.

Such was the state of things when Louis XVI., in the year 1774, ascended the throne of Hugh Capet. He was then in his twentieth year, having married, four years before, Marie Antoinette, daughter of Maria Theresa, empress of Austria. He was the grandson of Louis XV., who bequeathed to him a debt of four thousand millions of livres.

Accession of Louis XVI.

The new King was amiable and moral, and would have ruled France well in peaceful times, but he was unequal to a revolutionary crisis. "Of all the monarchs," says Alison, "of the Capetian line, he was the least able to stem, and yet the least likely to provoke, a revolution. The people were tired of the arbitrary powers of their Monarch, and he was disposed to abandon them; they were provoked at the expensive corruptions of the Court, and he was both innocent in his manners, and inexpensive in his habits; they demanded reformation in the administration of affairs, and he placed his chief glory in yielding to the public voice. His reign, from

Ch. 27 his accession to the throne to the meeting of the States General, was nothing but a series of ameliorations, without calming the public effervescence. He had the misfortune to wish sincerely for the public good, without possessing the firmness necessary to secure it; and with truth it may be said, that reforms were more fatal to him than the continuance of abuses would have been to another sovereign."

A. D. 1774 to 1787.

Maurepas and Turgot. Maurepas was his first prime minister, an old courtier without talent, who was far from comprehending the spirit of the nation or the genius of the times. He contented himself with adopting half measures, and pursued a temporizing policy. The discontents of the people induced the King to dismiss him, and Turgot, for whom they clamored, then became prime minister. He, although an honest man, and desirous of effecting reforms, was not able to accomplish anything important.

Malesherbes. Malesherbes, a lawyer, who adopted the views of Turgot, succeeded him; and, had he been permitted, would have restored the rights of the people, suppressed the *lettres de cachet*, re-enacted the Edict of Nantes, and secured the liberty of the press. But with all his integrity and just views, he was not equal to the crisis.

Necker. Necker, who now became minister of finance, was a native of Geneva, a successful banker, and a man who had won the confidence of the nation. He found means to restore public credit; but as he was opposed by the nobles, who wanted no radical reform, he in turn was compelled to resign.

Calonne. M. de Calonne took his place; a man of ready invention, unscrupulous, witty, and brilliant. Self-confident and full of promises, he succeeded in imparting a gleam of sunshine, by pursuing a plan directly the opposite to that adopted by Necker. He encouraged the extravagance of the Court, derided the future, and warded off pressing debts by contracting new ones. He pleased all classes by his captivating manners, and his brilliant conversation. The King, furnished with what money he wanted, forgot the burdens of the people, and

the minister went on recklessly contracting new loans, and studiously concealing from the public the extent of the annual deficit.

But such a policy could not long be successful; and the people were overwhelmed with amazement when it finally appeared that, since the retirement of Necker in 1781, Calonne had added sixteen hundred and forty-six millions of francs to the public debt. National bankruptcy now stared everybody in the face. It was necessary that an extraordinary movement should be made; and Calonne recommended the assembling of the Notables, a body composed chiefly of the nobility, clergy, and magistracy, with the hope that these persons would consent to their own taxation.

National bankruptcy.

He was miserably mistaken. The Notables met in the year 1787, the first time they had assembled since the reign of Henry IV., and they contented themselves with demanding the dismissal of the minister, who was succeeded by Brienne, Archbishop of Toulouse. He was a weak man, and owed his elevation to his influence over the Queen, whom he won by his pleasing conversation. Occupying one of the highest positions in the church, he at once threw himself into the arms of atheistical philosophers. The Notables granted to him what they refused to Calonne. They consented to a land tax, to the stamp duty, to provincial assemblies, and to the suppression of the gratuitous service of vassals. These were popular measures, but were insufficient. Brienne was under the necessity of proposing the imposition of new burdens. The Parliament of Paris refused to register the edict. A struggle between the King and the Parliament resulted; and the King, in order to secure the registration, resorted to *a bed of justice*—the last stretch of royal power.

Imposition of taxes.

During one of the meetings of the Parliament, when the abuses and prodigality of the Court were denounced, a member, punning upon the word *états* (statements), exclaimed, "It is not statements, but States General that we want." From that moment nothing was thought of or talked about but the

Ch. 27 assembling of the States General; to which the minister, from his increasing embarrassments, consented. All classes formed great and extravagant expectations from this step, and all were doomed to disappointment, but none more than those who had most vehemently and enthusiastically called for the convocation.

A. D. 1788.

Brienne soon after retired, unable to stem the revolutionary current. But he contrived to make his own fortune, by securing benefices to the amount of eight hundred thousand francs, the archbishopric of Sens, and a cardinal's hat. At his recommendation Necker was recalled. On Necker's return, he found only two hundred and fifty thousand francs in the royal treasury; but the funds immediately rose thirty per cent., and he was able to secure the loans necessary to carry on the government, rich capitalists fearing that absolute ruin would result unless they came to his assistance.

Return of Necker.

Then followed discussions in reference to the Tiers Etat, as to what the third estate really represented, and as to the number of deputies who should be called to the assembly of the States General. "The Tiers Etat," said the Abbé Sièyes, in an able pamphlet, "is the French nation, minus the noblesse and the clergy." It was at last decided that the assembly should be at least one thousand, and that the number of deputies should equal the representatives of the nobles and clergy. The elections were carelessly conducted, and all persons, decently dressed, were allowed to vote. Upwards of three millions of electors determined the choice of deputies. Necker had conceded too much, and unwittingly opened the floodgates of revolution. He had no conception of the storm which was about to overwhelm the throne.

Abbé Sièyes.

On the 4th of May, 1789, that famous Assembly, which it was hoped would restore prosperity to France, met with great pomp in the cathedral church of Notre Dame; the Bishop of Nancy delivered the sermon, and, the next day, the Assembly was opened in the hall prepared for the occasion. The King was seated on a magnificent throne, the nobles and the clergy

Meeting of States General.

on both sides of the hall, and the third estate at the farther end. Louis XVI. pronounced a speech full of disinterested sentiments, and Necker read a report in reference to the state of the finances. Ch. 27 A. D. 1789.

The next day, the deputies of the Tiers Etat were directed to the place allotted to them, which was the common hall; the nobles and clergy repairing to a separate apartment. But the deputies insisted upon the three orders deliberating together in the same room. Angry discussions and conferences now took place; and the deputies finally resolved, by a majority of four hundred and ninety-one to ninety, to assume the title of *National Assembly*, and to invite the members of the other chamber to join them. They erected themselves in fact into a sovereign power, like the Long Parliament of Charles I., disregarding both the Throne and the nobility. The Tiers Etat.

Some of the more resolute of the nobles urged the King to adopt vigorous measures against the usurpation of the third estate; but he was timid and irresolute.

The man who had, at that time, the greatest influence in the National Assembly, was Mirabeau, who warmly espoused the popular side. He was of noble birth, of commanding air, of great abilities, and of unrivalled eloquence; but disagreeable in person, licentious in habits, and a bankrupt in reputation. His picture is always prominent in every history of the revolution. Besides Mirabeau, the National Assembly contained many men of commanding talent; some of great virtues, others of the most violent revolutionary principles. Some of the nobility also joined them, among whom were the Dukes of Orleans, Rochefoucault, and Liancourt; Count Lally Tollendal; the two brothers Lameth; Clermont Tonnerre, and the Marquis de La Fayette, all of whom were guillotined or exiled during the revolution. Influence of Mirabeau.

The discussions in the Assembly, noisy as they were, but faintly shadowed the tumults of the people. All classes were intoxicated with excitement; all believed that a new era was

Ch. 27 at hand, when the evils which afflicted society would be removed, and a state of unbounded liberty, plenty, and prosperity be introduced.

A. D. 1789.

In the midst of these popular ferments, the guards, comprising three thousand six hundred men, revolted; immense bodies of workmen assembled, and gave vent to the most inflammatory language; the Hotel of the Invalides was captured; fifty thousand pikes were forged and distributed among the people; the Bastile was stormed; and military massacres commenced. Soon after this the tricolored cockade was adopted; the French guards were suppressed by the Assembly; the King and his family were brought to Paris by a mob; and the Club of the Jacobins was established. Before the year 1789 was ended, the National Assembly was the supreme power in France; the King had become a shadow and a mockery; no authority existed but what emanated from the people; no power remained to suppress popular excesses and insurrections. The Assembly published proclamations against acts of violence, but they were disregarded. Famine, added to other horrors, set in at Paris; the farmers, fearing that their grain would be seized, no longer brought it to market; manufactures were suspended, and the public property was confiscated to supply the immediate wants of a starving and infuriated people. The State was rapidly hastening to irremediable ruin.

Storming of Bastile.

Approach of famine.

The year 1790 opened gloomily, for no one could tell when the revolutionary spirit would cease, or how far it would be carried. The mob of Paris was rapidly engrossing all power. One of the first measures of the Assembly was to divest the provinces of France of their ancient privileges, and to divide the kingdom into eighty-four new departments, nearly equal in extent and population. A criminal tribunal was established for each department, and a civil court for each of the districts into which the department was divided. The various officers and magistrates were elected by the people, and the qualification for voting was a contribution to the amount of three days' labor. By this great step, the whole civil force of the king-

New tribunals.

dom was placed at the disposal of the lower classes, who had the nomination of the municipality, the control of the military, and the appointment of judges, deputies, and officers of the National Guard. By this arrangement forty-eight thousand communes, or municipalities, exercised all the rights of sovereignty, and hardly any appointment was left to the Crown.

The next great object of the Assembly was the regulation of the finances. Further taxation was impossible, yet the public necessities were great. The revenue had almost failed, and the national debt had increased twelve hundred millions in less than three years. Capitalists would advance nothing, and voluntary contributions had produced but a momentary relief. Under these circumstances, the spoliation of the church was resolved upon, and Talleyrand, Bishop of Autun, was the first to propose the confiscation of the property of his order. The temptation was irresistible; for the church owned nearly one-half of the whole landed property of the kingdom. The scheme was carried out, and the revenues of the clergy were reduced to one-fifth of their former amount.

Spoliation of the church.

This violent measure led to another. There was no money to pay for the great estates which the Assembly now wished to sell. The municipalities of the large cities, therefore, became the purchasers, and gave promissory notes to the public creditors until payment should be made, supposing that individuals would buy of them in small portions. Sales not being effected by the municipalities, as was expected, and payment becoming due, recourse was had to government bills. Thus arose the system of *Assignats*, which were issued to a great amount on the security of the church lands. This step ultimately led to the establishment of a vast body of small landholders, whose property sprang out of the revolution, and whose interests consequently became identified with it. The relief, however great, was but momentary. New issues were made at every crisis, until the reflecting portion of the community were alarmed, and assignats depreciated to a merely nominal value. At the close of the year, the credit of the nation was

System of Assignats.

Ch. 27 destroyed, and the precious metals were, in a great measure, withdrawn from circulation.

A. D. 1790 The Assembly now abolished all titles of nobility; changed the whole judicial system; declared its right to make peace and war; and established the National Guard, by which three hundred thousand men were enrolled in support of revolutionary measures. On the 14th of July, the anniversary of the capture of the Bastile, the celebrated National Federation took place, when four hundred thousand persons repaired to the Champ de Mars, to witness the King, his ministers, the Assembly, and the public functionaries, take the oath to the new constitution.

National Federation.

Towards the close of the year, an extensive emigration of the nobles took place, followed by the immediate confiscation of their estates. Mirabeau, who, until this time, had supported the popular side, now joined the Throne, and endeavored to save it. But in vain. He had contributed to raise the storm, but he had not the power to allay it. His death which almost immediately followed, was felt as a public calamity, and all Paris assembled to see his remains deposited, with extraordinary pomp, in the Pantheon, by the side of Des Cartes. Had he lived, he might possibly have saved the lives of the King and Queen, but he could not have prevented subsequent atrocities.

Flight of the King

The Royal Family perceiving, too late, that they were mere prisoners in the Tuileries, now endeavored to escape to Coblentz, where the great body of emigrants resided. They contrived to reach Varennes, but were there recognized, and brought back to Paris. This event greatly increased the popular ferments. The King was suspended from his functions, and a guard placed over his person.

On the 29th of September, 1791, the Constituent Assembly dissolved itself; having, during the three years of its existence, enacted thirteen hundred and nine laws bearing on the general administration of the State. It is impossible, even now, to estimate justly the value of its proceedings. It certainly re-

moved many great and glaring evils. It abolished torture, the *lettres de cachet*, the most oppressive duties, the privileges of the nobility, and feudal burdens. It established National Guards, a uniform system of jurisprudence, and an equal system of finance. "It opened the army to men of merit, and divided the landed possessions of the aristocracy among the laboring classes; which, though a violation of the rights of property, enabled the nation to bear the burdens which were subsequently imposed, and to prosper under evils so terrible as national bankruptcy, depreciated assignats, the Reign of Terror, the conscription of Napoleon, and the subjugation of Europe."

Legislative Assembly.

The Legislative Assembly, composed for the most part of country attorneys and clerks, among whom there were not fifty persons possessed of one hundred pounds a year, took the place of the Constituent Assembly, and opened its sittings on the 1st of October.

The members on the right, called *Feuillants*, from the Club which formed the centre of their power, were friends to the limited monarchy which the Constituent Assembly had established. The National Guard, the magistrates, and all the constituted authorities, were the supporters of this party. The *Girondists*, comprehending the more respectable of the Republicans, formed a second party, among whom were numbered the ablest men in the Assembly. Brissot, Vergniaud, Condorcet, Guadet, and Isnard, were leading members of it.

Political parties.

A third party, headed by Chabot, Bazin, and Merlin, was supported by the Clubs of the *Jacobins* and the *Cordeliers*. The great oracles of the Jacobins were Robespierre, Varennes, and Collot d'Herbois; while the leaders of the Cordeliers were Danton and Desmoulins. Robespierre was excluded from the Assembly, by a sort of self-denying ordinance which he himself had proposed. His influence, at that time, was immense, from the extravagance of his opinions, the vehemence of his language, and the reputation he had acquired for integrity.

Between these three parties there were violent contentions,

Ch. 27 and a struggle for ascendency commenced, which was soon to end in the complete triumph of the Jacobins.

A. D. 1792. In the mean time, the condition of the King, who scarcely possessed the shadow of authority, the extent of popular excesses, and the diffusion of revolutionary principles, induced the leading Monarchs of Europe to combine together, in order to suppress disturbances in France. In July, the Emperor Leopold appealed to the Sovereigns of Europe to unite for the deliverance of Louis XVI. Austria collected her troops; the emigrants at Coblentz made warlike demonstrations; and preparations were made for the commencement of a contest, which, before it was finished, proved the most bloody and extensive that has desolated the world since the fall of the Roman Empire.

Preparations for war.

Invasion of France. The Constituent Assembly rejected with disdain the dictation of the European Powers; and the new ministry, of which Dumourier and Roland were the most prominent members, prepared for war. All classes in France were anxious for the struggle, so hostilities were not long delayed. On the 25th of July, the Duke of Brunswick, with an army of one hundred and forty-eight thousand Prussians, Austrians, and Hessians, entered the French territory. The spirit of resistance animated all classes, and the ardor of the multitude was without a parallel. The Manifesto of the Allied Powers indicated the dispositions of the Court and of the emigrants. Revolt against the throne was now openly declared. On the 25th of July, the Marseillais arrived in Paris, and augmented the strength and confidence of the insurgents. Popular commotions increased, and the Clubs became unmanageable. On the 10th of August, 1792, the tocsin sounded, the *générale* beat in every quarter of Paris, and an insurrection took place; the Hotel de Ville was seized by the insurgents, the Tuileries was stormed, and the Swiss Guards were massacred. The last chance for the King to regain his power was lost; Paris was in the hands of an infuriated mob.

Massacre of Swiss Guards.

The confinement of the King in the Temple, the departure

of the foreign ambassadors, the flight of emigrants, the confiscation of their estates, the massacres in the prisons, the sack of palaces, the fall and flight of La Fayette, and the dissolution of the Legislative Assembly, rapidly succeeded.

On the 21st of September, the National Convention, composed of the most violent advocates of revolution, commenced its sittings. It was ruled by the popular orators who happened to have the greatest influence in the Clubs. The most influential of these leaders were Danton, Marat, and Robespierre. Danton was a lawyer, a man of brutal courage, the slave of sensual passions, and the idol of the Parisian mob. He, as minister of justice, was the ferocious author of the massacres in the prisons. Marat was a journalist, the president of the Jacobin Club, and a violent advocate of all excesses. His bloody career was prematurely cut short by the hand of Charlotte Corday, who offered up her own life to rid the country of the greatest monster which the annals of crime have ever consigned to an infamous immortality.

Danton, Marat, and Robespierre.

Robespierre was a sentimentalist, and concealed, under the mask of patriotism and philanthropy, an insatiable ambition, inordinate vanity, and implacable revenge. He despised money, and, when he had at his disposal the lives and fortunes of his countrymen, lived upon a few francs a day. It is usual to deny him any extraordinary talent; but that he was a man of domineering will, of invincible courage, and of austere enthusiasm, appears from nearly all the actions of his hateful career.

It was in the midst of the awful massacre in the prisons, where more than five thousand perished to appease the infatuated vengeance of the Parisian mob, that the Convention opened its proceedings. Its first measure was, to abolish the monarchy, and to proclaim a republic; the next, to issue new assignats. The two preceding assemblies had authorized the fabrication of twenty-seven hundred millions of francs, and the Convention added several millions more, on the security of the national domains.

Sittings of the Convention.

On the 7th of November, 1792, the trial of the King

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was decreed; and, on the 11th of December, his examination commenced. As he appeared at the bar of the Convention, the president, Barrere, exclaimed, "Louis, the French nation accuses you; you are about to hear the charges that are to be preferred. Louis, be seated."

Trial and execution of Louis XVI.

The charges having been read, the King replied with dignity, simplicity, and directness. He was defended, in this mock trial, by Desèze, Tronchet, and Malesherbes; but his blood was demanded, and the Assembly unanimously pronounced the condemnation of their King. On the 20th of January, Santerre appeared in the royal prison, and read the sentence of death; three days only were allowed to prepare for the last hour of anguish. On the 24th of January, 1793, the Monarch mounted the scaffold, erected between the garden of the Tuileries and the Champs Elysées, and the fatal axe soon separated his head from his body. His remains were buried in the ancient cemetery of the Madeleine, over which Napoleon commenced, after the battle of Jena, a splendid temple of glory; but as the building was not finished until the restoration of the Bourbons, it was then converted into the beautiful church which now bears the name of the ancient cemetery. The spot where Louis XVI. offered up his life, in expiation of the crimes of his ancestors, is marked by the colossal obelisk of red granite, which the French Government, in 1831, brought from Egypt,—a monument which witnessed the march of Cambyses, and may perhaps survive the glory of the French nation itself.

Effects of his martyrdom.

The execution of Louis XVI. was the signal for a general war. All the Powers of Europe instantly united in opposition to the principles and proceedings of the French revolutionists. The Convention, after declaring war against England, Holland, Spain, Austria, Prussia, Portugal, the Two Sicilies, the Roman States, Sardinia, and Piedmont,—ordered a levy of three hundred thousand men; instituted a military tribunal; imposed a forced loan of one thousand millions; and prepared, with unparalleled energy, to defend the soil of France.

A Committee of Public Safety was appointed, and the dictatorship of Danton, Marat, and Robespierre commenced, marked by great horrors and barbarities, but signalized also by wonderful successes in war, and by exertions which, under common circumstances, would scarcely be credited.

Committee of Safety.

This committee was at first composed of twenty-five persons, then of twelve; but Robespierre and Marat were, from the first, the leading members. The different departments of the government were of course assigned to ruling Jacobins. St. Just was entrusted with the duty of denouncing enemies; Couthon brought forward general measures; Billaud Varennes and Collot d'Herbois managed the departments; Carnot was made minister of war; and Robespierre, general dictator. In this body, as the supreme authority, really vested all the power of government. "It named and dismissed generals, judges, and juries; brought forward all public measures in the Convention; ruled provinces and armies; controlled the Revolutionary Tribunal; made requisitions of men and money; and appointed revolutionary committees, which sprang up in every part of the kingdom, to the frightful number of fifty thousand. It was the object of the Committee of Public Safety to destroy all who opposed the most violent revolutionary measures. Marat had declared that two hundred and sixty thousand heads must fall before freedom was secure; the revolutionary committees discovered that seven hundred thousand persons must be sacrificed."

Reign of Terror.

Then commenced the Reign of Terror, when all the prisons of France were filled with victims, whose only crime was being obnoxious to the reigning powers. The suspected, if possible, fled, but were generally unable to carry away their property, which was immediately confiscated; thousands were guillotined; anarchy and fear reigned without a rival. Deputies, even those who had been most instrumental in bringing on the revolution, were sacrificed by the triumphant Jacobins. Women and retired citizens were not permitted to escape their fear and vengeance.

Ch. 27 A. D. 1794. Bloody executions.

The Queen Marie Antoinette, the Princess Elizabeth, and Madame Roland, were among the first victims. Then followed the executions of Bailly, Mayor of Paris; Barnave, one of the most eloquent and upright members of the Constituent Assembly; Dupont Dutertre, one of the ministers of Louis XVI.; Lavoisier, the chemist; Condorcet, the philosopher; General Custine; and General Houchard, all of whom had been the allies of the dominant party. The Duke of Orleans, usually called *Egalité*, who had supported the revolt of the 10th of August, and had voted for the execution of the King, shared the same fate, and he, of all the victims of the revolution, died least lamented.

The "Decemvirs" had now destroyed the most illustrious advocates of constitutional monarchy and of republican liberty. The slaughter of their old friends followed. The first victim was Danton himself, who had used his influence to put a stop to the bloody executions which then disgraced the country, and had at length recognized the existence of a God, and the rights of humanity. For such sentiments he was denounced and executed, together with Camille Desmoulins and Lacroix, who perished only because they were somewhat less wicked than their associates. Finally, the anarchists themselves fell before the storm which they had raised, and Hebert, Gobet, Clootz, and Vincent died amid shouts of general execration. The Committee of Public Safety had now subdued all opposition, and, in their iron hands, order, under the influence of terror, resumed its sway. "The history of the world has no parallel to the horrors of that long night of suffering, because it has no parallel to the guilt which preceded it; tyranny never assumed so hideous a form, because licentiousness never required so severe a punishment."

General suffering and consternation.

Confident of its strength, the Committee now decreed the disbanding of the army raised to overawe the capital, dissolved all societies which did not depend on the Jacobin Club, and devoted every energy to the establishment of its power. But death was the means taken to secure it, and two hundred thousand victims filled the prisons of France.

At last, fear united the members of the Convention, and they resolved to free the country of the great tyrant who aimed at the suppression of all power but his own. "Do not flatter yourselves," said Tallien to the Girondists, "that he will spare you, for you have committed an unpardonable offence in being freemen." "Do *you* still live?" said he to the Jacobins; "in a few days he will have your heads, if you do not take his." All parties in the Assembly now resolved to overthrow Robespierre. Dumas, the president of the Revolutionary Tribunal, Henriot, the commander of the National Guard, Couthon and St. Just, the tools of the tyrant, were quickly denounced, condemned, and executed. The last hours of Robespierre were horrible beyond description. When he was led to execution, the blood flowed from his jaw, broken in an attempt at suicide; his face was deadly pale, and he uttered yells of agony, which filled all hearts with terror. But one woman, nevertheless, penetrated the crowd which surrounded him, exclaiming, "Murderer of my kindred! your agony fills me with joy; descend to hell, covered with the curses of every mother in France."

Fall of the Revolutionists.

Thus terminated the Reign of Terror, during which nearly nineteen thousand persons died in Paris by the guillotine. Among these were two thousand nobles and a thousand priests. Immense numbers perished by the executioner in other parts of France.

During this period, however, vigorous measures had been adopted to carry on war. On the part of the allies, no less than two hundred and eighty thousand men were in the field, from Basle to Dunkirk. Toulon and Lyons had raised the standard of revolt; Mayence gave the invaders a passage into the heart of the kingdom; whilst sixty thousand insurgents in La Vendée threatened to encamp under the walls of Paris.

Vigorous measures for war.

But through the exertions of Carnot, the minister of war, still greater numbers were placed under arms by the Committee. France was turned into an immense workshop of military preparations, and the whole property of the kingdom, by means of confiscations and assignats, was placed at the disposal

Ch. 27 of the Government. The immense debts of the Government were paid in paper money, while conscription filled the ranks with the youth of the State. Added to all this force which the Government had at its disposal, it must be remembered that the army was burning with enthusiastic dreams of liberty, of patriotism, and of glory. No wonder that such a nation of soldiers and enthusiasts should have been able to resist the armies of united Christendom.

A. D. 1794.

Reaction in the public mind.

On the death of Robespierre, which took place in July, 1794, a great reaction succeeded to the Reign of Terror. His old associates and tools were executed or transported; the Club of the Jacobins was closed; the Revolutionary Tribunals were suppressed; the rebellious faubourgs were subdued; the National Guard was reorganized; and a new constitution was formed.

The constitution of 1798, framed under different influences to that of 1793, established the legislative power in two councils,—that of the *Five Hundred*, and that of the *Ancients*. The former was intrusted with the power of originating laws; the latter had the power to pass or reject them. The executive power was intrusted to five persons, called *Directors*, who were nominated by the Council of Five Hundred, and approved by that of the Ancients. Each individual was to be president by rotation during three months, and a new director was to be chosen every year. The Directory had the entire disposal of the army, the finances, the appointment of public functionaries, and the management of public negotiations.

Renewed agitations.

But powerful enemies to the new constitution soon sprang up. Paris was again agitated. The National Guard took part with the disaffected, and the Directory, threatened and perplexed, summoned to its aid a body of five thousand regular troops. The National Guard mustered in great strength, to the number of thirty thousand men, and resolved to overawe the Councils, which were likened to the Long Parliament in the times of Cromwell. The Directory intrusted Barras with its defence, and he demanded, as his second in command, a young

officer of artillery who had distinguished himself at the siege of Toulon. By his advice a powerful train of artillery was brought to Paris by a lieutenant called *Murat*. On the 4th of October, 1795, the whole neighbourhood of the Tuileries resembled an intrenched camp. The commander of the forces then waited the attack of the insurgents, and the action soon commenced. Thirty thousand men surrounded the little army of six thousand, who defended the cause of order and law. Victory inclined to the regular troops, who had the assistance of artillery, and, above all, who were animated by the spirit of their intrepid leader—Napoleon Bonaparte. The insurgents were not a rabble, but the flower of French citizens; yet they were forced to yield to superior military skill, and the reign of the army commenced.

Ch. 27 A. D. 1795. Final struggle.

Thus closed what is technically called the French Revolution; the most awful political hurricane in the annals of modern civilized nations. It closed, nominally, with the accession of the Directory to power, but really with the accession of Napoleon; for, shortly after, his victories occupied the attention of the French nation, and astonished the whole world.

It is impossible as yet to pronounce on the effects of this great Revolution, since a sufficient time has not elapsed for us to form healthy judgments. We are accustomed to associate with some of the actors everything that is vile and monstrous in human nature. But unmitigated monsters rarely appear on earth. The same men who excite our detestation, had they lived in quiet times, might have been respected. Even Robespierre might have retained an honorable name to his death, as an upright judge. But the French mind was deranged. New ideas had turned the brains of enthusiasts. The triumph of abstract principles of justice seemed more desirable than the preservation of human life. The sense of injury and wrong was too vivid to allow heated partisans to make allowances for the common infirmities of man. Enthusiasts in liberty could not see in Louis XVI. anything but the

Effects of the Revolution.

Ch. 27 emblem of tyranny in its worst form. They fancied that
A. D. 1796. they could regenerate society by their gospel of social rights, and they were deluded by mistaken notions as to the virtue of the people. But, above all, they over-estimated *themselves*, and placed too light a value on the imperishable principles of revealed religion—a religion which as clearly enjoins patience and humility, as it encourages the spirit of liberty and progress. But whatever may have been their blunders or their crimes, and however marked the providence of God in overruling both for the ultimate good of Europe, still, all contemplative men behold in the Revolution the retributive justice of the Almighty, in humiliating pride, and in punishing cruel oppression.

REFERENCES.—Alison's "History of the French Revolution," marked by many prejudices, and sometimes inaccurate as to facts, yet lofty, temperate, and profound. Thiers's "History" is more lively, and takes different views; Carlyle's is extremely able. Lamartine's "History of the Girondists" is sentimental, but pleasing and instructive; Mignet's "History" is also good. Lacretelle's "Histoire de France," and the Memoirs of Mirabeau, Necker, and Robespierre, should be read. Carlyle's "Essays on Mirabeau and Danton" are well worth perusal. Burke's "Reflections" should be read by all who wish to have the most vivid conception of the horrors of the awful event which he deprecated. For a general list of authors who have written on this period, see Alison's Index of Writers, prefixed to his great work, but which are too numerous to be mentioned here.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE was born in Corsica, on the 15th of August, 1769. His parents were respectable, and he was early sent to a royal military school at Brienne. He was chiefly distinguished for his attainments in mathematics; he was studious, reserved, and cold; and always exhibited an inflexible will,—a peculiarity which proved to be the great distinguishing quality of his mind. At the age of fourteen, in consequence of his superior attainments, he was removed to the military school at Paris, and at the age of seventeen, received his commission as second lieutenant in a regiment of artillery.

Ch. 28 A. D. 1795.

Early youth of Napoleon.

When the Revolution broke out, Toulon, one of the arsenals of France, took a more decided part in favor of the King and the Constitution than either Marseilles or Lyons, and invited the support of the English and Spanish squadrons. The Committee of Public Safety resolved to subdue the city; and Bonaparte, at that time a brigadier-general, with the command of the artillery at the siege, recommended a course which led to the capture of that important place.

For his distinguished services and talents, he was appointed second in command by the Directory, when that body was threatened and overawed by the rebellious National Guard. Having saved the State, and defended the authorities, he was appointed second in command of the great army of the interior, and, finally, General-in-chief, in the place of Barras, who found his new office as Director incompatible with the duties of a general.

His services.

Ch. 28 — A. D. 1796.

The Directory.

The other Directors who now enjoyed the supreme command were Reubel, Laréveillère Lépeaux, Le Tourneur, and Carnot. Sièyes, a man of great talent, had been elected, but had declined. Among these five men, Carnot was the only one who had genius; it was through his exertions that France, under the Committee of Public Safety, had been saved from the torrent of invasion. But Barras, though inferior in some respects to Carnot, had greater influence, and it was through his favor that Bonaparte received his appointments. That a young man of twenty-five should have been entrusted with the command of the army of the interior, is as remarkable as the victories which subsequently showed that his elevation was not the work of chance, but of a providential hand.

Josephine.

The acknowledged favorite of Barras was a young widow, by birth a Creole of the West Indies, whose husband, a general in the army of the Rhine, had been guillotined during the Reign of Terror. Her name was Josephine Beauharnois; and being a woman of sense, of warm affections, and of rare accomplishments, she won the heart of Bonaparte, and was married to him on the 9th of March, 1796. Her dowry was the command of the army of Italy, which, through her influence, the young general received.

Army of Italy.

This army was composed of but forty-two thousand men, while the forces of the Italian States numbered one hundred and sixty thousand, and could with ease be increased to three hundred thousand. But Bonaparte felt sure of victory. His soldiers were young men, inured to danger and toil; and among his officers were Berthier, Massena, Marmont, Augereau, Serrurier, Jubert, Lannes, and Murat. They were not then all generals, but they all became afterwards marshals of France.

Brilliant campaign.

The campaign of 1796 in Italy was successful beyond precedent in the history of war; and the battles of Montenotte, Millesimo, and Dego, the passage of the bridge of Lodi, the siege of Mantua, and the victories at Castiglione, Caldiero, Arcola, Rivoli, and Mantua, extended the fame of Bonaparte throughout the world. The Austrian armies were every-

where defeated, and Italy was subjected to the rule of the French. "With this invasion commenced tyranny under the name of liberty, rapine under the name of generosity, the stripping of churches, the robbing of hospitals, the levelling of the palaces of the great, and the destruction of the cottages of the poor; all that military license has of most terrible, all that despotic authority has of most oppressive."

Progress of the war.

While Bonaparte was subduing Italy, another French army under Moreau was contending, on the Rhine, with the Austrians under the Archduke Charles. Several great battles were fought, and masterly retreats were made, but without decisive results.

It is surprising that either England or France should have been able to endure the expense of this great contest for more than twenty years. The French Directory, on its accession to power, found the finances in a state of inextricable confusion. Assignats had fallen to almost nothing, and taxes were collected with such difficulty, that there were arrears to the amount of fifteen hundred millions of francs. The armies were destitute and ill paid, the artillery without horses, and the infantry depressed by suffering and defeat. In England, the Government of Mr. Pitt was violently assailed for carrying on war against a country which sought simply to revolutionize its own institutions, and which all the armies of Europe had thus far failed to subdue. Mr. Fox, and others in the opposition, were perpetually urging the folly of a contest which had already added one hundred millions of pounds to the national debt. Mr. Pitt, in reply, argued that the French must be nearly exhausted by their great exertions, and would soon be unable to continue the warfare. The nation, generally, took this latter view of the case, and Parliament voted immense supplies.

Perplexed state of finances.

The year 1797 opened gloomily for England. The French had gained immense successes. Bonaparte had subdued Italy; Hoche had suppressed the rebellion in La Vendée; Austria was preparing to defend her last barriers in the passes of the

French success.

Ch. 28 Alps; Holland was virtually incorporated with Republican France; Spain had also joined its forces; the whole Continent was, in fact, arrayed against Great Britain. England, it was said, had interfered in a contest in which she was not concerned, and she was now paying the penalty. The funds fell from ninety-eight to fifty-one; and petitions for a change of ministry were transmitted from almost every city of note in the kingdom. The Bank of England had suspended cash payments, and the country was overburdened by taxation. Nevertheless, in spite of all these difficulties, Parliament voted new supplies, and made immense preparations, especially for the increase of the navy. One hundred and twenty-four ships of the line, one hundred and eighty frigates, and one hundred and eighty-four sloops, were put in commission, and sent to the various quarters of the globe.

A. D. 1797.

Fall of English funds.

Mutiny of the Nore.

Soon after this occurred the memorable mutiny in the English fleet, which, for a time, produced great alarm. It was, however, finally suppressed by the vigorous measures which the Government adopted, and by that happy union of firmness and humanity, justice and concession, which Mr. Pitt exercised. The mutiny resulted from real grievances which then existed in the navy; grievances which, to the glory of Pitt, were candidly considered and promptly redressed. The temporary disgrace, which rested on the navy in consequence of this affair, was soon wiped away by the battle of Cape St. Vincent, in which Admiral Jervis, seconded by Nelson and Collingwood, with fifteen ships of the line and six frigates, defeated a Spanish fleet of twenty-seven ships of the line and twelve frigates. This important naval victory delivered England from all fear of invasion, and inspired her people with fresh courage to bear the heavy taxes which the war occasioned. Before the season closed, the Dutch fleet, of fifteen ships of the line and eleven frigates, was defeated by an English one, under Admiral Duncan, consisting of sixteen ships of the line and three frigates. The battles of Camperdown and Cape St. Vincent, in which the

Battle of Cape St. Vincent.

genius of Duncan and Nelson were signally exhibited, were among the most important fought at sea during the war, and diffused unexampled joy throughout Great Britain. The victors were all rewarded. Jervis became Earl St. Vincent, Admiral Duncan became a viscount, and Commodore Nelson was made a baronet. Soon after these victories, Mr. Burke died, urging the ministry, as his end approached, to persevere in the great struggle to which the nation was committed.

Victories of Napoleon.

While the English were victorious on the water, the French obtained new triumphs on the land. In twenty days after the opening of the campaign of 1797, Bonaparte had driven the Archduke Charles, with an army equal to his own, over the Julian Alps, and had occupied Carniola, Carinthia, Trieste, Fiume, and the Italian Tyrol; while a force of forty-five thousand men, flushed with victory, was on the northern declivity of the Alps, within fifty leagues of Vienna. In the midst of these successes, an insurrection broke out in the Venetian territories; and as Bonaparte, partly in consequence of the jealousy of the Directory, was not supported, as he expected, by the armies of the Rhine, he resolved to forego all thoughts of dictating peace under the walls of Vienna, and contented himself with making as advantageous terms as possible with the Austrian Government.

Conquest of Venice.

Having accomplished this object, he directed his attention to the subjugation of Venice, no longer the "Queen of the Adriatic, throned on her hundred isles," but degenerate, weakened, and divided. The Venetian Senate made every effort to avert the storm, but in vain. Bonaparte declared war against Venice, and her fall was not long delayed. The French seized all the treasure they could find, obliged the ruined capital to furnish heavy contributions, and compelled the surrender of its choicest works of art. Soon after, the youthful conqueror established himself in the beautiful chateau of Montebello, near Milan, and there dictated peace to the assembled ambassadors of Germany, Rome, Genoa, Venice, Naples, Piedmont, and the Swiss Republic. The treaty of Campo

Ch. 28 A. D. 1798. Formio exhibited both the strength and the perfidy of Bonaparte, especially in reference to Venice, which was disgracefully despoiled to pay the expenses of the Italian wars. Among other things, the splendid bronze horses, which for six hundred years had stood over the portico of the church of St. Mark, to commemorate the capture of Constantinople by the Venetian crusaders, and which had originally been brought from Corinth to Rome by ancient conquerors, were removed to Paris to decorate the Tuileries.

Treaty of Campo Formio.

Bonaparte's journey from Italy to Paris, after Venice, with its beautiful provinces, had been surrendered to Austria, was a triumphal procession. The enthusiasm of the Parisians was boundless; the public curiosity to see him indescribable. Yet he lived in a quiet manner, simply assuming the dress of the Institute, of which body he had been lately elected a member. Great *fêtes* were, however, given in his honor, and his victories were magnified.

Invasion of Egypt.

But he was not content either with repose or adulation His ambitious soul panted for new conquests; and having conceived the scheme of an Egyptian invasion, he veiled it from the eyes of the world by a pretended attack on England herself. It is not probable that Bonaparte at this time ever seriously contemplated the conquest of England, knowing well the difficulty of supporting and recruiting his army, even if he succeeded in landing his forces. He probably only designed to divert the attention of the English from his projected enterprise.

On the 9th of May, 1798, all being ready, he embarked at Toulon in a fleet of thirteen ships of the line, fourteen frigates, seventy-two brigs, and four hundred transports, containing thirty-six thousand soldiers and ten thousand sailors. He was joined by reinforcements at Genoa, Ajaccio, and Civita Castellana; and on the 10th of June he arrived at Malta, which capitulated without firing a shot. Proceeding on his voyage, he succeeded in escaping the squadron of Nelson, and on the 1st of July reached Alexandria. He was vigorously opposed by the Mamelukes, but advanced in spite of them to

Battle of the Pyramids.

Cairo, marching along the banks of the Nile. Near the Pyramids, a great battle took place; the Mamelukes were signally defeated, and the fate of Egypt was sealed.

Battle of the Nile.

The battle of the Nile quickly succeeded, and the victory of Nelson — one of the most brilliant but bloody actions in the history of naval warfare—gave a mortal stroke to the French army, and made the conquest of Egypt useless. Bonaparte, finding his army exiled, and himself destined to hopeless struggles with Oriental power, now made gigantic efforts, in order to secure the means of support, to prosecute scientific researches, and to complete the conquest of the country. He crossed the desert, which separates Africa from Asia, and early in 1799, with an army not exceeding sixteen thousand men, invaded Syria, stormed Jaffa, massacred its garrison, and then advanced to Acre. Its memorable siege in the time of the Crusades should have deterred Bonaparte from trying to subdue it with his little army in the midst of a hostile population. But he made the attempt. The fortress, succoured by Sir Sydney Smith, successfully resisted, and he was compelled to retire with the loss of three thousand men.

Siege of Acre.

His discomfited army now retreated to Egypt, and there suffered all the accumulated miseries which fatigue, heat, thirst, plague, and famine could inflict. Amidst all these calamities, however, added to discontent among the troops, he won the great battle of Aboukir. Immediately after this he left the army under the command of Kleber, returned to Alexandria, and secretly set sail, accompanied by Berthier, Lannes, Murat, Marmont, and other generals. He succeeded in escaping the English cruisers, and on the 8th of October, 1799, landed in France.

Napoleon returns to France.

During the absence of Bonaparte in Egypt, the French Directory had become unpopular, and the national finances more embarrassed than ever. But the war was continued with unabated energy. Switzerland was invaded and conquered; an outrage which showed the ambitious designs of the Government more than any previous attack which it had

Ch. 28 made on the liberties of Europe. The Papal States were next seized, the venerable Pontiff being subjected to cruel indignities, and the treasures and monuments of Rome again despoiled. "The Vatican was stripped to its naked walls, and the immortal frescoes of Raphael and Michael Angelo alone remained in solitary beauty amidst the general desolation." The King of Sardinia was driven from his dominions, and Naples yielded to the tricolored flag. Immense military contributions were levied in all these unfortunate States, and all that was beautiful in art was transported to Paris.

A. D. 1799.

Italy despoiled.

Reverses of the French.

In the mean time, the spirits of the English were revived by the victories of Nelson, and greater preparations than ever were made to resist the General, who now plainly aimed at the conquest of Europe. England, Austria, and Russia combined against France, and her armies met with reverses in Italy and on the Rhine. Suwarrow, with a large army of Russians and Austrians, gained considerable success, and General Moreau was obliged to retreat before him. Serrurier surrendered with seven thousand men, and Suwarrow entered Milan in triumph, with sixty thousand. Turin shared the fate of Milan, and Piedmont and Lombardy were overrun by the allies. The republicans were expelled from Naples. Mantua fell, and Suwarrow marched with his conquering legions into Switzerland.

Honors decreed to Napoleon.

These disasters happened while Bonaparte was in Egypt; his return to France was, therefore, hailed with universal joy. His victories had prepared the way for a most enthusiastic reception, and favored his assumption of the sovereign power. All the generals then in Paris paid their court to him; and his saloon, in his humble dwelling in the Rue Chantereine, resembled the levée of a monarch. Lannes, Murat, Berthier, Jourdan, Augereau, Macdonald, Bournonville, Leclerc, Lefebvre, and Marmont, afterwards so illustrious as the marshals of the Empire, offered him the military dictatorship, while Sièyes, Talleyrand, and Régnier, the great civil leaders, concurred to place him at the head of affairs.

He himself withdrew from the gaze of the people, affected great simplicity, and associated chiefly with men distinguished for literary and scientific attainments. But he secretly intrigued with Sièyes and with his generals. Three of the Directory sent in their resignations, and Napoleon assumed the reins of government, under the title of *First Consul*, having for his associates Sièyes and Roger Ducos. The legislative branches of the Government resisted, but the Council of Five Hundred was powerless before the bayonets of the military. A new revolution was now effected, and despotic power placed in the hands of a military chieftain. Talleyrand was made minister of foreign affairs. Fouché retained his portfolio of police, and the celebrated La Place was made minister of the interior. On the 24th of December, 1799, the new constitution was proclaimed; and shortly after, Sièyes and Roger Ducos withdrew from the Consulate, and gave place to Cambacères and Lebrun, who were in the interests of Napoleon.

Napoleon First Consul.

The first step of the Consul was to offer peace to Great Britain. This was done in a letter to the King, in which peace was declared to be the first necessity and truest glory of nations! Lord Grenville, minister of foreign affairs, replied in a long letter, in which he laid upon France the blame of the war, tracing it to her revolutionary principles and aggressive spirit, and refusing to make peace while the causes of difficulty remained. The Commons supported the Government by a large majority, and all parties prepared for a still more desperate conflict. Mr. Pitt was probably right in his opinion that no peace could be lasting with a revolutionary power, and that every successive concession would only pave the way for fresh demands. Bonaparte, on the other hand, could only fulfil what he called his destiny, by continual agitation; and this was well understood both by himself and his enemies. The contest had become one of life and death; and both parties resolved that no peace should be made until one or the other was effectually conquered.

Offers peace to England.

The land forces of Great Britain, at the commencement of

Ch. 28 the year 1800, amounted to one hundred and sixty-eight thousand men, exclusive of eighty thousand militia, and one hundred and twenty thousand seamen and marines. The vessels in commission were no less than five hundred, including one hundred and twenty-four ships of the line. The various German States, assisted by large subsidies from Great Britain, made unusual exertions, and agreed to raise a contingent force of three hundred thousand men. Austria, alone, had in the field at this time a force of two hundred thousand men, half of whom belonged to the army of Italy under Melas.

A. D. 1800.

Forces of England.

Difficulties of Napoleon.

To make head against these united forces with a defeated army, an exhausted treasury, and a disunited people, was the difficult task of Bonaparte. His first object was to improve the finances; his second, to tranquillize La Vendée; his third, to detach Russia from the allies; and his fourth, to raise armies equal to the crisis. All these measures he rapidly accomplished. One hundred and twenty thousand men were raised by conscription, without any exemption from either rank or fortune, and two hundred and fifty thousand men were soon ready to commence hostilities. The First Consul then suppressed the liberty of the press, fixed his residence in the Tuileries, and established the usages and ceremonial of a Court. He revoked the sentence of banishment on illustrious individuals, established a secret police, and constructed the gallery of the Louvre.

Renewed hostilities.

Hostilities commenced in Germany, where Moreau defeated General Kray at the battles of Engen, Moeskirch, and Biberach. Massena fought with great courage in the Maritime Alps, but was obliged to retreat before superior forces, and shut himself up in Genoa, which endured a dreadful siege, but was finally compelled to surrender. The victor, Melas, then set out to meet Bonaparte himself, who had just effected his celebrated passage over the Alps by the Great St. Bernard, one of the most wonderful feats in the annals of war; for his artillery and baggage had to be transported over some of the highest and most difficult passes of that mountainous range.

The passes of the St. Gothard and Mount Cenis were effected by the wings of the army.

A. D. 1801.

The first action took place at Montebello, and ended in favor of the French. This was soon followed by a decisive and brilliant victory at Marengo, on the 14th of June, 1800, one of the most obstinately contested during the war, and attended with greater results than perhaps any battle that had yet occurred in modern warfare. Moreau also gained a great victory over the Austrians at Hohenlinden; and Macdonald performed great exploits amid the mountains of the Italian Tyrol. The treaty of Luneville, made February 9, 1801, followed by the Peace of Amiens, which was signed in March, 1802, fully recognized the victorious career of Bonaparte, by ceding to France the possession of Belgium, and the whole left bank of the Rhine. Lombardy was erected into an independent State; Venice was restored to Austria; and the independence of the Batavian, Helvetic, Cisalpine, and Ligurian Republics was guaranteed. This peace excited unbounded joy at Paris, and was the first considerable pause in the continental strife.

Battle of Marengo.

Napoleon now returned to his capital to reconstruct French society, which was entirely disorganized. This he proposed to accomplish by restoring the institutions of religion, law, commerce, and education. He did not attempt to give constitutional freedom. One night, going to the theatre, he narrowly escaped death by the explosion of an "infernal machine." He attributed this attempt to the Jacobins, and forthwith transported one hundred and thirty of them. He was determined to break up that obnoxious party, and the design against his life furnished the pretence. Shortly after, he instituted the Legion of Honor, an order of merit which was designed to substitute personal for hereditary honours. The scheme was violently opposed, but was eventually carried through the Council of State; and this institution, which at length numbered two thousand persons, civil and military, became both popular and useful.

Return of Napoleon to Paris.

His popularity.

Ch. 28 A. D. 1802. He next restored the external institutions of religion, and ten archbishops and fifty bishops again administered the affairs of the Gallican Church. The restoration of the Sunday, with its customary observances, was hailed by the peasantry with undisguised delight, and was a pleasing sight to the nations of Europe. He then contemplated the complete restoration of all the unalienated national property to the original proprietors, but was forced to abandon this design. A general amnesty was also proclaimed to the emigrants, in consequence of which one hundred thousand people returned, not indeed to enjoy their possessions, but to recover a part of them, and to breathe the air of their native land. At last, he resolved to make himself First Consul for life, and so seat his family on a monarchical throne. He was again opposed by the Council of State; but he appealed to the people, and three million three hundred and sixty-eight thousand, out of three million five hundred and fifty-seven thousand electors, voted for his elevation.

Restoration of religion.

Code Napoléon.

The "*Code Napoléon*" then occupied his attention, indisputably the noblest monument of his reign. All classes and parties have praised the wisdom of this great compilation, which produced more salutary changes in France than had been effected by all the early revolutionists. Amid these undertakings of the Consul, the internal prosperity of the country was constantly increasing, and education, art, and science received an immense impulse. Everything seemed to smile upon Bonaparte, and all parties appeared reconciled to the great power which he so ably exercised.

Republican conspiracy.

Some of his generals, however, who were attached to republican principles, viewed with ill-suppressed jealousy the rapid strides he was making to imperial power. Moreau, the victor at Hohenlinden, was at the head of these; and, in conjunction with Fouché, who had been turned out of his office on account of the immense power which it gave him, formed a conspiracy of Republicans and Royalists to overturn the consular throne. Fouché revealed the plot to Bonaparte, who restored him to power, and Generals Moreau and Pichegru,

the Duke d'Enghien, and other illustrious persons, were arrested. The Duke himself was innocent of the conspiracy, but was sacrificed to the jealousy of Bonaparte, who wished to remove from the eyes of the people the only member of the Bourbon family he feared. This murder, which took place on the 20th of March, 1804, was one of the most cruel and unjustifiable acts which Bonaparte ever committed. "It was worse than a crime," said Talleyrand; "it was a blunder." It again lighted the flames of continental war, and from it may be dated the commencement of that train of events which ultimately hurled Napoleon from the imperial throne.

Murder of the Duke d'Enghien.

On the 18th of May following, Napoleon was declared Emperor of the French, and an overwhelming majority of electoral votes confirmed him in his usurpation of the throne of Hugh Capet. His first step, as emperor, was the creation of eighteen marshals, all memorable in the annals of military glory—Berthier, Murat, Moncey, Jourdan, Masséna, Augereau, Bernadotte, Soult, Brune, Lannes, Mortier, Ney, Davoust, Bessières, Kellermann, Lefebvre, Pérignon, and Serrurier. To these military heroes it is impossible here further to allude.

Early in the year 1805, the three great European Powers, England, Austria, and Russia, entered into a coalition to reduce France to its ancient limits, and to humble the despot who had usurped its throne. Enormous preparations were made by all the belligerent States, and four hundred thousand men were furnished by the allies for active service; a force not, however, much larger than Napoleon had raised to prosecute his scheme of universal dominion.

Great coalition.

Among other designs, he now really meditated the invasion of England, and assembled for that purpose one of the most splendid armies which had been collected since the days of the Roman legions. It amounted to one hundred and fourteen thousand men, four hundred and thirty-two pieces of cannon, and fourteen thousand six hundred and fifty-four horses. Ample transports were provided to convey this immense army to the shores of England. This great design was defeated by

Invasion of England.

Ch. 28 the vigilance and number of the British ships which defended
A. D. 1805. the coasts, those "wooden walls" which have so often preserved England from dreaded danger.

War on the Danube. Frustrated in the attempt to invade Great Britain, Napoleon instantly conceived the plan of the campaign of Austerlitz, and without delay gave orders for the march of his different armies to the banks of the Danube. The army on the shores of the Channel, the forces in Holland, and the troops in Hanover, were formed into seven corps, under the command of as many marshals, comprising altogether one hundred and ninety thousand men, while the troops of his allies in Italy and Germany amounted to nearly seventy thousand more. Eighty thousand new conscripts were also raised, and all of these were designed for the approaching conflict with the Austrians.

Battle of Trafalgar. But before the different armies could meet in Germany, Nelson had gained the great and ever-memorable victory of Trafalgar, by which the naval power of France and Spain was so crippled and weakened, that England remained, during the continuance of the war, sovereign mistress of the ocean. Nothing could exceed the transports of exultation which pervaded the British empire on the news of this great naval victory, which was gained on the 23rd of October, 1805. All that national gratitude could prompt was done in honor of Nelson. The remains of the fallen victor were buried in St. Paul's Cathedral, and over them a magnificent monument was erected. His brother, who inherited his title, was made an earl, with a grant of six thousand pounds a year, and an estate worth one hundred thousand pounds. Admiral Collingwood, the second in command, was raised to the peerage, with

Death of Nelson. a grant of two thousand pounds yearly. Countless and weeping multitudes followed the departed hero to the grave; and his memory has ever since been consecrated in the hearts of his countrymen, who regard him, and with justice, as the greatest naval commander which any nation or age has produced.

The forces of Napoleon were now marshalled on the plains of Germany, and the Austrians, under the Archduke Charles,

began to act on the defensive. Napoleon advanced rapidly on Vienna, seized the bridge which led from it to the northern provinces of the empire, passed through the city, and established his head-quarters at Schoenbrunn. On the 1st of December was fought the celebrated battle of Austerlitz, the most glorious of all Napoleon's battles, and the one in which his military genius shone with the greatest lustre. It decided the campaign. Negotiations with Austria, dictated by the irresistible power of the French Emperor, were concluded at Presburg on the 27th December, by which that ancient State was completely humbled. The dethronement of the King of Naples followed, and the power of Napoleon was consolidated on the continent of Europe.

Ch. 28 A. D. 1806. Battle of Austerlitz.

The defeat of Austerlitz was a great blow to the Allied Powers. The health and spirits of Mr. Pitt sank under the disastrous intelligence; a devouring fever seized his brain, and delirium quenched the fire of his genius. He died on the 23rd of January, 1806, at the age of forty-seven, with the exclamation on his lips, "Alas, my country!" He was buried with great pomp in Westminster Abbey, actually dying in debt, after having had the control, for so many years, of the Treasury of England. Mr. Fox did not long survive his illustrious rival, but departed from the scene of conflict and of glory on the 13th of September following.

Death of Pitt.

The humiliation of Prussia succeeded to that of Austria. The battle of Jena, fought on the 14th of October, prostrated, in a single day, the strength of the Prussian Monarchy, and did what the united armies of Austria, Russia, and France could not accomplish by the Seven Years' War. Napoleon followed up his victories by bold and decisive measures; invested Magdeburg, which was soon abandoned; entered Berlin in triumph; and levied enormous contributions on the kingdom, to the amount of one hundred and fifty-nine millions of francs. In less than seven weeks, three hundred and fifty standards, four thousand pieces of cannon, and eighty thousand prisoners, were taken; while only fifteen thousand men,

Battle of Jena.

Ch. 28 out of one hundred and twenty thousand, were able to follow the standards of the conquered King to the banks of the Vistula. Alarm, as well as despondency, now seized the nations of Europe. All the coalitions which had been made had failed, and the proudest Monarchs of Christendom were suppliant at the feet of Napoleon. The unfortunate Frederic William sued for peace; but such hard conditions were imposed by the haughty conqueror, that it was impossible to accept them at this time; and it was from Berlin that Napoleon issued his celebrated decrees against British commerce.

A. D. 1807.

Battle of Eylau. The Emperor now advanced into Poland to meet the Russian armies; and at Eylau, on the 8th of February, 1807, a bloody battle was fought, in which fifty thousand men perished. It was indecisive, but it had the effect of checking the progress of the French armies. Napoleon only ordered new conscriptions, and soon had again two hundred and eighty thousand men between the Vistula and Memel. New successes attended his armies, resulting at last in a peace with Russia, which was made at Tilsit, on the river Niemen, at which place Napoleon had a personal interview with the Emperor Alexander and the King of Prussia.

Peace of Tilsit. By this treaty Poland was erected into a separate principality, and the changes which Napoleon had made in Europe were ratified by the two Monarchs. Soon after this, Napoleon, having subdued resistance on the continent of Europe, returned to his capital.

After the peace of Tilsit, he devoted all his energies to the preservation of his power and to the improvement of his country. He looked upon himself as having received a commission from Heaven to reign as the absolute monarch of a vast empire. The watchwords "liberty," "equality," "fraternity," "the public welfare," were heard no more; they gave place to others which equally flattered the feelings of the French people, such as "the interests of the Empire," or "the splendor of the imperial throne." The *Code Napoléon* was established; schools of science were improved; arts,

Improvement of France.

manufactures, and agriculture revived. Great monuments arose to gratify the national pride and to perpetuate the glory of his conquests. The dignity of the imperial throne was splendidly maintained, and the utmost demands of etiquette were strictly observed. He encouraged amusements, festivities, and *fêtes;* and Talma, the actor, as well as artists and scholars, received his personal regard. But, unfortunately, all his reforms and all his policy had reference to the conversion of France into a nation of soldiers.

Elevation of his family.

He had already elevated his two brothers, Louis and Joseph, to the thrones of Holland and Naples. He now sought to make his brother Joseph King of Spain. He availed himself, therefore, of a quarrel between King Charles and his son; acted as mediator, in the same sense that Hastings and Clive acted as mediators in the quarrels of Indian princes; and so prepared to seize one of the oldest and proudest monarchies of Europe. The details of the long war on the Spanish peninsula, which followed the accession of Joseph Bonaparte to the throne of Spain, have been admirably traced by Napier, in the best military history that has been written in modern times. The great hero of that war was the Duke of Wellington; who, though he fought under the greatest disadvantages and against superior forces, finally succeeded in turning the tide of French conquest.

Spanish War.

Spain, although degenerate, did not fall without a struggle. The Spanish Juntas adopted all the means of resistance in their power; and the immortal defence of Saragossa, the capital of Arragon, should have taught the imperial robber that the Spanish spirit was not yet extinguished. To afford them every possible assistance became the almost universal wish of the English people; and Sir Arthur Wellesley, the conqueror of the Mahrattas, in order to render such aid, landed in Portugal in August, 1808. He was immediately opposed by Marshal Junot. Napoleon could not be spared to defend in person the throne of his brother, but his most illustrious marshals were sent into the field. A few months after the

Ch. 28 arrival of the English, January 16th, 1809, the battle of Corunna was fought, at which Sir John Moore, one of the bravest of generals, was killed in the moment of victory.

A. D. 1809

Long and disastrous to Napoleon was that Peninsular war. To add to its difficulties, Austria was once more in the field, with enormous forces. Five hundred and fifty thousand men, in different armies, were put under the command of the Archduke Charles. Napoleon advanced against him, and was successful at Abensberg and at Eckmuhl. Once more he occupied Vienna; then fought the battle of Wagram, and again became the conqueror of Austria. On the 14th of November, 1809, he returned to Paris.

Divorce of Josephine.

Soon after this he made the grand mistake of his life, by divorcing Josephine, whom he loved and respected,—a woman fully worthy of his love, and of the exalted position to which she was raised. But she had no children, and Napoleon wanted an heir to the universal empire which he sought to erect on the ruins of the ancient monarchies of Europe. The dream of Charlemagne and of Charles V. was his also—the revival of the great Western Empire. Perhaps, also, he contemplated by this alliance the easy conquest of Russia. Alexander thought so. "His next task," said he, "will be to drive me back to my forests."

The Empress Josephine heard of the intention of Napoleon with indescribable anguish, but submitted to his will; sacrificing her happiness to what she was made to believe would advance the welfare of her country and the interests of that heartless conqueror whom she nevertheless loved with unparalleled devotion. On the 11th of March, 1810, the espousals of Napoleon and Maria Louisa were celebrated at Vienna, the person of the French Emperor being represented by his favorite Berthier. A few days afterwards she set out for France. Her marriage, in a domestic point of view, was happy. Josephine had the advantage over her in art and grace, but she was superior in the charms of simplicity and modesty. "It is singular," says Sir Walter Scott, "that the artificial

Second marriage of Napoleon.

character should have belonged to the daughter of a West India planter; that marked by nature and simplicity, to a princess of the proudest court in Europe." Ch. 28 A. D. 1810.

Meanwhile, the war in Spain was prosecuted with eagerness, and Napoleon became master of its richest and most powerful provinces. Seventy-five thousand men in Andalusia, under Soult; fifty thousand under Marmont, in Leon; sixty thousand under Bessières, at Valladolid and Biscay; forty-five thousand under Macdonald, at Gerona, to guard Catalonia; thirty thousand under Suchet, twenty thousand under Joseph and Jourdan, fifteen thousand under Régnier, besides many more thousand troops in the various garrisons; in all above three hundred thousand men, held Spain in military subjection. Against these immense forces, marshalled under the greatest generals of France, Spain and her allies could oppose only about ninety thousand men, for the most part ill disciplined and poorly equipped. Great armies in Spain.

The vital point of resistance was Cadiz, which was successfully defended. Tortosa, Tarragona, Saguntum, and Valentia, after a desperate struggle, fell. Wellington, on the other hand, gained the great battle of Albuera, one of the bloodiest ever fought, which had a great effect in raising the spirits both of his army and that of the Spaniards.

In the next campaign, that of 1812, new successes were obtained by Wellington, against almost overwhelming difficulties. He renewed the siege of Badajoz, and carried this frontier fortress, which enabled him now to act on the offensive, and to enter the Spanish territories. The fall of Ciudad Rodrigo was attended with the same important consequences. With only sixty thousand men Lord Wellington now determined to invade Spain, although defended by three hundred thousand. Salamanca was the first place of consequence which fell: Marmont being totally defeated. Wellington then advanced to Madrid, which he entered on the 12th of August, amid the enthusiastic shouts of the Spanish population. Soult, obliged to raise the siege of Cadiz, and to abandon Andalusia, now Siege of Badajoz.

Ch. 28 hastened to meet the great English general, who had turned the tide of French aggression. Wellington, compelled to retire before the immense forces which were marching against him, fell back, first on Salamanca, and afterwards on Ciudad Rodrigo. In the midst of these events, Napoleon prepared for his disastrous invasion of Russia; the most gigantic and most unfortunate expedition in the whole history of war.

A. D. 1812.

Invasion of Russia.

The motive for this invasion is uncertain. Perhaps it might be only to keep up the succession of victories. Perhaps he felt that, to be secure, he must advance; that the moment he sought repose, his throne would begin to totter; that nothing would sustain the enthusiasm of his countrymen but new triumphs, commensurate with his greatness and fame. Earnestly was he dissuaded from the undertaking, not only because it was plainly aggressive and unnecessary, but because it was impolitic. Three hundred thousand men were fighting in Spain to establish his family on the throne of the Bourbons, and the rest of Europe was watching his course, with the intention of assailing him so soon as he should meet with misfortunes.

But neither danger nor difficulty deterred Napoleon from the commission of this great crime. The forces of all the countries he had subdued were marshalled under the French Emperor, in this dreadful expedition, and nothing but enthusiasm was excited in all the dominions of the empire. The army of invasion amounted to above five hundred thousand men, only two hundred thousand of whom were native French. To oppose this enormous force, the Russians collected about three hundred thousand.

Vast preparation.

Napoleon felt secure of victory. On the banks of the Niemen he reviewed the principal corps of his army, collected from so many countries, and for the support of which they were obliged to contribute. On the 24th of June, he and his hosts crossed the river; and never, probably, in the history of man, was exhibited a more splendid and imposing scene. The Russians retreated as the allied armies advanced; and on the

28th of June, 1812, Napoleon was at Wilna, where he foolishly remained seventeen days—the greatest military blunder of his life. The Emperor Alexander hastened to Moscow, collected his armaments, and issued proclamations to his subjects, which excited them to the highest degree of enthusiasm, to defend their altars and their firesides. Ch. 28 A. D. 1812.

Both armies approached Smolensko about the 16th of July, and there was fought the first great battle of the campaign. The town was taken, and the Russians retreated towards Moscow. But before this conflict began, a considerable part of the army had perished from sickness and toil. At Borodino another bloody battle was fought, in which more men were killed and wounded than in any battle which history records. Napoleon, in this battle, did not exhibit his usual sagacity or energy, being, perhaps, overwhelmed with anxiety and fatigue. His dispirited and broken army continued the march to Moscow, which was reached on the 14th of September. Battle of Borodino.

The Sacred City of the Russians was at once abandoned by the army, and three hundred thousand of the inhabitants took to flight. Napoleon had scarcely entered the deserted capital, and taken quarters in the ancient palace of the Czars, before the city was discovered to be on fire in several places; and even the Kremlin itself was soon enveloped in flames. The consternation and horrors of that awful conflagration can never be described, or even conceived. Pillage and murder could scarcely add to the universal wretchedness. Execration, indignation, and vengeance filled the breasts both of the conquerors and the conquered. But who were the conquerors? Alas! those only who witnessed the complicated miseries and awful destruction of the retreating army. Conflagration of Moscow.

That retreat was the saddest tragedy ever acted by man, but rendered inevitable after the burning of Moscow, since Napoleon could not have advanced to St. Petersburg. For some time he lingered in the vicinity of Moscow, hoping for the submission of Russia. Alexander was too wise to treat

Ch. 28 for peace, so Napoleon and his diminished army, loaded with the spoil of Moscow, commenced their retreat through a hostile and desolate country, harassed by ever increasing troops of Cossacks. Too soon, frosts, unusual for their severity, even in Russia, set in, and the roads were strewed by thousands who perished from fatigue and cold. The retreat became a rout; for order, amid general destruction and despair, could no longer be preserved. The enemy hung upon the rear of the retreating army, and cut off thousands whom the elements had spared. In less than a week, thirty thousand horses died, and the famished troops preyed upon their remains.

A. D. 1812.

Retreat of the French.

All the efforts of Napoleon proved vain to secure provisions for the men, or forage for the horses. Disasters thickened, and every man abandoned himself to despair. Of all the awful scenes which ever appalled the human heart, the passage of the Beresina was the most dreadful. When the ice was dissolved in the following spring, twelve thousand dead bodies were found upon the shore. The shattered remnants of the Grand Army, after unparalleled suffering, at length reached the bank of the Niemen. Not more than twenty thousand of the vast host with which Napoleon passed Smolensko left the Russian territory. Their course might be traced by the bones which afterwards whitened the soil.

But before the Polish territories were reached, the Emperor had deserted his army, and borne to Paris the first intelligence of his great disaster. One hundred and twenty-five thousand of his troops had died in battle; one hundred and ninety thousand had been taken prisoners; and one hundred and thirty-two thousand had died of cold, fatigue, and famine. Only eighty thousand had escaped, of whom twenty-five thousand were Austrians and eighteen thousand were Prussians. The annals of the world furnish no example of so complete an overthrow, or so terrible a retribution on a vain-glorious nation.

Melancholy result of the invasion.

This calamity proved the chief cause of Napoleon's ruin. Its failure was immediately followed by the resurrection of

Germany. Both Austria and Prussia threw off the ignominious yoke he had imposed, and united with Russia to secure their ancient liberties. The enthusiasm of the Prussians was unbounded, and immense preparations were made by all the allied powers for a new campaign. Napoleon exerted all his energies to rally his exhausted countrymen, and a large numerical force was again raised. But the troops were chiefly conscripts, young men, unable to endure the fatigue which his former soldiers sustained, and no longer inspired with their sentiments and ideas. Ch. 28 A. D. 1813. Coalition against Napoleon.

The campaign of 1813 was opened in Germany, and signalized by the battles of Lutzen and Bautzen, in which the French had the advantage. Saxony still remained true to Napoleon, who now established his head-quarters in Dresden. The allies retreated, but only to prepare for more vigorous operations. England nobly assisted, and immense supplies were promptly sent to the mouth of the Elbe, and distributed through Germany. While these preparations were going on, the battle of Vittoria was fought in Spain. It gave a death blow to French power in the Peninsula, and placed Lord Wellington in the front rank of generals.

Napoleon was now more than ever compelled to act on the defensive, and he resolved, therefore, to make the Elbe the base of his defensive operations; his armies, along this line, amounting to the prodigious number of four hundred thousand men. Dresden, their head quarters, presented at this time a scene of unparalleled gaiety and splendor, of licentiousness, extravagance, and folly. The allied forces at once marched upon the city, and a dreadful battle took place on the 27th of August, beneath its walls, which resulted in the retreat of the allies, and in the death of General Moreau, who on this occasion opposed his old commander. On the 15th of October the celebrated battle of Leipsic was fought, in which a greater number of men were engaged than in any previous battle during the war, or probably in the history of Europe—two hundred and thirty thousand against one hundred and Battles of Dresden and Leipsic.

Ch. 28 sixty thousand. The triumph of the allies was complete. Napoleon was overpowered by the coalition of his enemies. He had nothing to do, after this great discomfiture, but to retreat to France, and to place the kingdom in the best state of defence in his power. Misfortunes thickened in every quarter; and, at the close of the campaign, France retained but a few fortresses beyond the Rhine. The contest in Germany was over, and French domination in that country was at an end. Out of four hundred thousand men, only eighty thousand recrossed the Rhine.

A. D. 1813.

Calamities of the French.

A grand alliance of all the powers of Europe—from the rock of Gibraltar to the shores of Archangel; from the banks of the Scheldt to the margin of the Bosphorus; the mightiest confederation ever known, was now arrayed against Napoleon. His greatness is seen in the indomitable determination with which he resisted this confederation, when his allies had deserted him, and when his own subjects were no longer inclined to rally around his standard.

Advance of the allies to Paris.

On the 31st of December, 1813, fourteen hundred and seven years after the Suevi, Vandals, and Burgundians crossed the Rhine and entered without opposition the defenceless provinces of Gaul, the united Prussians, Austrians, and Russians crossed the same river, and invaded the territories of the modern Cæsar. They rapidly advanced towards Paris, and Napoleon went forth from his capital to meet them. His cause, however, was now desperate. Slowly, but surely, the allied armies advanced, and gradually surrounded him. By the 30th of March, they were encamped on the heights of Montmartre; and Paris, defenceless and miserable, surrendered to the conquerors.

Abdication of Napoleon.

The allies now refused to treat with the man, who, but a month before, at the conference of Chatillon, might have retained his throne, if he had consented to reign over the territories of France as they were before the Revolution. Napoleon retired to Fontainebleau; and, on the 4th of April, consented to abdicate the throne he could no longer defend.

His wife returned to her father's protection, and nearly every person of note or consideration abandoned him. On the 11th, he formally abdicated, and the house of Bourbon was restored. He himself retired to the Island of Elba, being allowed two million five hundred thousand francs a year, the title of emperor, and four hundred soldiers as his body guard. His farewell address to the soldiers of his old guard, at Fontainebleau, was pathetic and eloquent. They retained their attachment amid general desertion and baseness.

Death of Josephine.

Josephine did not long survive the fall of the hero she had loved, and with whose fortunes her own were so mysteriously united. She died on the 28th of May, 1814, and her last hours were soothed by the presence of the Emperor Alexander, who promised to take her children under his protection. The allies showed great magnanimity and moderation after their victory. The Monarchy of France was established nearly as it was before the Revolution, and the capital was not rifled of any of its monuments, curiosities, or treasures—not even of those which Napoleon had brought from Italy. Nor was even a military contribution imposed upon the people. The allies did not make war against France, but against a Monarch who had proved himself to be the enemy of mankind. The peace of Paris was signed by the plenipotentiaries of France, Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, on the 30th of May; and Christendom, at last, indulged the hope that the awful conflict had ended.

Peace of Paris.

Great changes had taken place in the sentiments of all classes since the commencement of the contest, and its close excited universal joy. In England, the enthusiasm was unparalleled. The nation, in its gratitude to Wellington, voted him four hundred thousand pounds, and the highest military triumphs. It also conferred rewards and honors on his principal generals; for his successful operations in Spain had largely contributed to the overthrow of Napoleon.

But scarcely were these rejoicings terminated, before the defeated Emperor escaped from Elba, and again, as if by

Ch. 28 magic, overturned the throne of the Bourbons. The impolitic generosity and almost inconceivable rashness of the allies had enabled Napoleon to carry on extensive intrigues in Paris, and to collect a respectable force on the island of which he was constituted the Sovereign; while the unpopularity and impolitic measures of the restored Dynasty singularly favored any scheme which he might have formed. The disbanding of an immense military force, the humiliation of those veterans who still associated with the eagles of Napoleon the glory of France, the derangement of the finances, and the discontents of so many people thrown out of employment, naturally prepared the way for the return of the hero of Marengo and Austerlitz.

A. D. 1815.

Napoleon escapes from Elba.

On the 26th of February, 1815, he gave a brilliant ball to the principal people of the island, and embarked the same evening, with eleven hundred troops, to regain the sceptre which had been wrested from him only by the united powers of Europe. On the 1st of March, his vessels cast anchor in the Gulf of St. Juan, on the coast of Provence; and Napoleon immediately commenced his march, having unfurled the tricolored flag. As he anticipated, he was welcomed by the people, and the old cry of "*Vive l'Empereur*" saluted his ears.

Renewed military preparations.

The Court of the Bourbons made vigorous preparations to resist, and the armies of France were intrusted to those marshals who owed their elevation to Napoleon. Soult, Ney, Augereau, Massena, Oudinot, all protested devotion to Louis XVIII.; and Ney especially promised the King to return to Paris with Napoleon in an iron cage. But Ney was among the first to desert the cause of law and legitimacy, and to throw himself into the arms of the Emperor. He could not withstand the arts and the eloquence of that great hero, for whose cause he had so long fought. The defection of the whole army rapidly followed. The King was obliged to fly, and Napoleon took possession of his throne, amid the universal transports of the Imperial party in France.

The intelligence of his restoration filled Europe with consternation, rage, and disappointment, and greater preparations than ever were made to subdue a man who respected no treaties. The unparalleled sum of one hundred and ten millions of pounds sterling was decreed by the British Senate for various purposes, and all the continental powers made proportionate exertions. The genius of Napoleon never blazed so brightly as in preparing for this last desperate conflict with united Christendom; and, considering the exhaustion of his country, the forces which he collected were astonishing. Before the beginning of June, two hundred and twenty thousand soldiers were completely armed and equipped; a great proof of the enthusiastic ardor which the people felt for him to the last.

Consternation of Europe.

The Duke of Wellington had eighty thousand effective men under his command, and Marshal Blucher one hundred and ten thousand. These forces were to unite, and to march to Paris through Flanders. It was arranged that the Austrians and Russians should invade France first, by Befort and Huningen, in order to attract the enemy's principal forces to that quarter. Napoleon's plan was to collect all his forces into one mass, and boldly to place them between the English and Prussians, and then to attack them separately. He had under his command one hundred and twenty thousand troops, and therefore, not unreasonably, expected to combat successfully the one hundred and ninety thousand of the enemy.

Wellington and Blucher.

On the 18th of June was performed the last sad act of the great tragedy which had for twenty years convulsed Europe with blood and tears. All the combatants on that eventful day understood the nature of the contest, and the importance of the battle. At Waterloo, Napoleon staked his last throw in the desperate game he had hazarded, and lost it. He was now ruined, irrevocably and for ever.

Battle of Waterloo.

In vain was his rapid flight, his attempt to defend Paris, or his readiness to abdicate in favor of his son. The allied powers, on the 7th of July, again entered Paris, and the

Ch. 28 Bourbon dynasty was restored. Napoleon retired to Rochefort, hoping to escape his enemies and reach America. It was impossible. He then resolved to throw himself upon the generosity of the English. He was removed to St. Helena. And there, on that lonely island, in the middle of the ocean, guarded most effectually by his enemies, his schemes of conquest ended. He supported his hopeless captivity with tolerable equanimity, showing no signs of remorse for the injuries he had inflicted, but meditating profoundly on the mistakes he had committed, and conjecturing vainly on the course he might have adopted for the preservation of his power.

A. D. 1815.

Napoleon at St. Helena.

The Allied Sovereigns of Europe now insisted on the restoration of the works of art which Napoleon had pillaged. "The bronzed horses, brought from Corinth to Rome, resumed their old station on the portico of the Church of St. Mark; the Transfiguration was restored to the Vatican; the Apollo and the Laocoon again adorned St. Peter's; the Venus was enshrined with new beauty at Florence; and the Descent from the Cross was replaced in the Cathedral of Antwerp." By the treaty which restored peace to Europe, the old dominions of Austria, Prussia, Russia, Spain, Holland, and Italy were restored, and the Bourbons, for a time, again reigned over the ancient provinces of France.

REFERENCES.—Alison's "History" is, on the whole, the most complete account of the French Revolution. Scott's "Life of Napoleon" was too hastily written. Thiers's Histories, with all their faults, are invaluable. Napier's "History of the Peninsular War" is a masterly production. Wellington's "Despatches" are indispensable to a student. Botta's "History of Italy under Napoleon;" Labaume's "Russian Campaign;" Southey's "Peninsular War;" Gifford's "Life of Pitt;" James's "Naval History;" Berthier's "Histoire de l'Expédition d'Egypte," and Schlosser's "Modern History," form but a small part of the many works which have appeared concerning the French Revolution and the career of Napoleon.

CHAPTER XXIX.

EUROPE, FROM THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA TO THE FALL OF THE BOURBONS.

Ch. 29

A. D. 1815 to 1830

Cost of the war to England.

THE restoration of peace revealed the tremendous cost at which the great struggle, now happily brought to a termination, had been carried on by England. The National Debt, which at the beginning of the reign of George III. was about a hundred millions, was found to have received between 1793 and 1815 *an addition* of at least six hundred millions; and the national taxation, which before the war had not exceeded seventeen millions, had reached in the year 1815 the enormous amount of seventy-two millions two hundred thousand pounds. In spite, however, of this great burden, it was found that the nation had been during the whole time advancing in prosperity. At the close of the great contest, the resources of Britain were greater, her possessions more extended, and her reputation higher than it had ever been before.

The Congress of Vienna.

The Congress of Vienna, which opened in September, 1814, and closed in the month of February of the following year, finally settled the various questions which had been left open when the Treaty of Peace was signed. The result of the deliberations may be thus stated. In the main, Europe returned to its old masters, but not without important modifications in relation to territory. France resumed the position she had occupied before the Revolution. Italy was reorganized:—the Kingdom of Sardinia was restored, and the old republic of Genoa was annexed to it; Tuscany again became an independent State, under her Grand Duke; the Pope received back the districts of which he had been de-

Ch. 29 spoiled; Lombardy and Venice fell under the yoke of Austria;
A. D. 1815. and the Kingdom of Naples, with the Two Sicilies, was restored to Ferdinand, the Bourbon. Germany was divided into thirty-nine Sovereign States, united, for European purposes, in one great Confederation, which took the place of the old German Empire. Austria obtained the Tyrol, and part of the Duchy of Warsaw; and Saxony, for her adherence to Napoleon, suffered the confiscation of a great part of her territory, most of which was handed over to Prussia. Russia gained the Kingdom of Poland as an appendage to her Empire, on condition that it should be governed separately and paternally. The city of Cracow, and its neighbourhood, was erected into a free Republic. The Ionian Islands and Malta were retained by England; and Hanover was raised to the rank of a Kingdom. Belgium was incorporated with Holland, and given to the Prince of Orange, who was to govern under the title of King of the Netherlands; and Switzerland was re-constituted as an independent Republic.

The Holy Alliance.

The Holy Alliance, as it was termed, was formed on the 26th of February, 1815, between Russia, Austria, and Prussia: it expressed the determination of the Emperor Alexander and his allies "to endeavour to regulate their future conduct by the principles of the Gospel;" and it pledged them to sustain each other in any future emergency that might arise.

The affairs of Europe having been placed on this footing, the Monarchs, who had visited England in July, 1814, where they were received with great pomp, and sumptuously entertained, returned to their respective countries, and devoted themselves to the management of their peoples. It will, therefore, now be advisable to notice the proceedings of each State separately.

Transition from war to peace.

In ENGLAND, the transition from war to peace was not effected without a great deal of commercial anxiety and disturbance. Wide-spread distress was for some time experienced. The pressure of taxation, notwithstanding the great reductions that were made, was felt, in the deadness of trade,

with unusual severity. Both the agricultural and manufacturing interests were greatly depressed, and serious riots from time to time took place. But the country, although exhausted, was not weakened. Commerce, after a time, again revived, and the elastic spirit of the nation rose superior to all temporary reverses.

Attack on Algiers.

During this year (1816) the public spirit of the people was cheered by tidings that Lord Exmouth had attacked Algiers, destroyed its fortifications, and so put an end to Christian slavery. The battle took place on the 27th of August, and on the day following twelve hundred slaves, belonging to various Christian nations, were restored to their country and friends. The total number liberated there, and at Tunis and Tripoli, was upwards of three thousand.

The Princess Charlotte.

The marriage of the Princess Charlotte, the presumptive heiress to the throne, with Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, which took place early in the year, gave great satisfaction to the nation, and the highest hopes were indulged in connection with so auspicious an event. These expectations were, however, doomed to disappointment. On the 6th of November, 1817, this beloved member of the Royal House died in childbirth, to the inexpressible regret of the entire body of the English people, who mourned for her as for a relative, or attached friend.

Proceedings against the Queen.

The lamented Princess had not been laid in her grave more than a year or two, when the country was thrown into commotion by legal proceedings commenced against her mother. This unhappy woman was by no means unconscious that inquiries had been instituted regarding her conduct in Italy, where, in consequence of domestic unhappiness, she had been travelling for some years; and now, on tidings reaching her that her name had been omitted from the Liturgy, by an order of the Privy Council, she resolved, in spite of the strongly expressed wishes of the King, and the offer of a very large pension, on condition of her remaining abroad, to return to England. She landed at Dover on the 6th of June, 1820, and

was received with acclamations. The King, irritated at the [illegible] openly accused her of unfaithfulness, and insisted upon a divorce. A bill of pains and penalties, intended to [illegible] royal dignity, was accordingly prepared [illegible] and the House of Lords, where, after a [illegible] which lasted several months, it passed by [illegible] was finally abandoned amid popular demonstrations [illegible] which have rarely been exceeded. London [illegible] was illuminated for three successive nights.

[illegible] November 1820 Queen Caroline [illegible] January 1821, the old King [illegible] the eighty-second year of [illegible] with a constitution of the [illegible] for several years, [illegible] account of the [illegible] to visit the [illegible]

year 1819, Lord John Russell had introduced the question into the House of Commons, but without success, although large popular meetings were then held in its support at Manchester and other great towns, both in England and Scotland. No serious breach of the peace, however, occurred till the 16th of August, when a great assemblage took place near Manchester, at a place called *Peterloo*. On this occasion, the Yeomanry, supported by Hussars, were most rashly ordered to charge the unarmed crowd, consisting largely of women and children, and in the confusion which ensued, five persons were killed, and upwards of seventy were more or less injured. The indignation excited throughout the country by this outrage was intense; the Government became alarmed; and Sir Francis Burdett, who at that time represented Westminster, was committed to the Tower for expressing, in a printed letter, his abhorrence of the crime. His subsequent liberation was celebrated by political processions, and popular principles were, by these unwise measures, greatly promoted.

Manchester massacre.

On the 22nd of February, 1820, the Cato Street Conspiracy, a miserable plot, intended to effect the assassination of the ministers of the Crown, when assembled at Lord Harrowby's at dinner, was happily discovered before any actual mischief had been accomplished. The abhorrence of all parties at this dastardly attempt was strongly expressed; but the restlessness of the country, now impatient for change, was in no degree allayed.

The Cato Street Conspiracy.

In the midst of increasing popular discontent, news arrived, in 1821, of the death of the Emperor Napoleon, which took place at St. Helena, on the 5th of May. The great conqueror had long suffered under an hereditary malady—cancer in the stomach—and in the early spring his life was considered in danger. In the beginning of May he became rapidly worse, and on the evening of the 5th, at five minutes before six, he breathed his last. A violent storm of wind and rain was then raging, and by its violence tearing up the trees of the island by their roots. Amid this tempest and hurricane, the am-

Death of Napoleon at St. Helena.

Ch. 29 bitious soul of Napoleon, like that of Cromwell, departed to its great account. "The howling of the wind," says Mr. Alison, "seemed to recall to the dying conqueror the roar of battle, and his last words were, 'Mon Dieu—La Nation Française—Tête d'Armée.'" To sketch the character of such a man in few lines would be impossible. It is written in the history of Europe during the twenty years of strife and blood which he inaugurated, and which terminated only with his fall.

A. D. 1822 to 1826.

Death of Lord Castlereagh.

The year following (1822) witnessed the death of the minister who had been long distinguished as the implacable enemy of the deceased Emperor. Lord Castlereagh, then Marquis of Londonderry, under the influence of temporary derangement, brought on by excessive labour, put an end to his existence on the 12th of August, and was immediately succeeded as Foreign Secretary by George Canning.

Unsound state of trade.

The trade of the country had now been for some time very extensive, and the year 1825 opened with universal expectations of great commercial successes. But a worm was at the root of this apparent prosperity. Speculations of the wildest character had been entered into, and a mania for foreign investments manifested, especially in the gold mines of Spanish America, which could scarcely fail to induce a frightful reaction.

Failure of the banks.

In the month of December, the delusion came to an end, and dissipated itself in the form of one of those great panics which from time to time startle mankind by their suddenness, and terrify by the desolation that follows in their train. The result was most disastrous. Several of the London bankers stopped payment, and, as a consequence, suspensions of a similar character occurred in all parts of the country. Within a few days seventy banks were overthrown, and property to an enormous amount was sacrificed. For a time, the trade of the country was paralyzed, and riots in the year 1826 again bore witness to prevailing distress.

About this time, efforts were made to call the attention of Parliament to the expediency of altering the laws relating to

the importation of corn, but in vain; the day for this great change was not yet come. Various schemes of emigration also excited attention, but without any results of immediate importance. Ch. 29 A. D. 1826 to 1829.

The Burmese war, which had been commenced under Mr. Canning's auspices, was happily brought to a termination in the month of February (1826), securing additional territory to the British Crown. A conflict with the Ashantees of Western Africa ended satisfactorily, about two years earlier.

In consequence of the illness of Lord Liverpool, who became thereby incapacitated for labour, Mr. Canning, whose brilliant talents had already infused new vigour into Foreign Affairs, became Premier in April, 1827, and hopes were generally entertained that advance would now be made in domestic legislation. The unexpected death of this gifted man, which took place a few months afterwards—on the 8th of August—extinguished these expectations, and led to the formation of a ministry under Lord Goderich, which, from various causes, fell to pieces in six months. Ministry of Mr. Canning.

In January, 1828, the Duke of Wellington was unexpectedly called to take the helm, and with the habits of a man who never flinched from any call of duty, he speedily succeeded, by the help of Sir Robert Peel, in forming a strong Government. The difficulties to be encountered were formidable. The agitation which had long been going on in Ireland, in favour of Roman Catholic Emancipation, and which had led to repeated discussions in the House of Commons, had by this time reached a point which rendered further delay dangerous. With his accustomed good sense, the Duke yielded, when peaceful resistance had become unavailing, and under his directions the Relief Bill was passed on the 13th of April, 1829. Catholic Emancipation.

With the crisis at which this great act of justice was completed, the name of Daniel O'Connell is inseparably linked. This eminent lawyer, who for fifteen years held absolute sway Daniel O'Connell.

Ch. 29 A. D. 1829. over the Irish mind, was unquestionably a man of splendid talents. No one, perhaps, ever possessed to a greater degree the power of moving the passions of a multitude. At the same time, few could excel him in the conduct of a legal argument, or in power of debate in the House of Commons. The peculiar characteristic of the man was, that he seemed to live but for one object—that of promoting the designs and interests of the Court of Rome; and in the accomplishment of this object he was as unscrupulous as a fanatic of the Middle Ages. His language, when speaking of his opponents, was frequently ferocious; but his disposition was not cruel, and he was thoroughly opposed to violence. His faith in *moral* pressure was unbounded; but he had none whatever in physical force, when wielded by a mob. Although sustained for many years in a most discreditable way by the donations of his poorer countrymen, he was not avaricious, and he died poor. His greatest errors were committed after the passing of the Emancipation Act, when he undertook to lead an agitation for the repeal of the Union between England and Ireland. This ultimately led to his arrest, trial, and conviction; and although, owing to legal doubts relating to the indictment, the sentence was ultimately set aside by the House of Lords, his influence from that day was at an end. His health soon after failed, and, by the advice of his physicians, he went abroad. He reached Genoa in a very feeble state, and died there on the 15th of May, 1847.

Agitation for repeal of the Union.

The repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts was effected on the 28th of April, 1828, the acts having long before practically gone into desuetude. For nearly a century they had remained on the statute book, obsolete but offensive; and their removal put an end to the discreditable practice of making the reception of the Lord's Supper, according to the rites of the Church of England, *legally* necessary to admission into corporations or public offices.

Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.

The resolution of the people to secure, at all hazards, a reform in the representation of the country in Parliament,

began now to be expressed in modes which clearly indicated that a measure of the sort could not much longer be deferred. Political unions of a formidable character sprang up on all sides; discontent everywhere prevailed; machinery was extensively destroyed; and incendiary fires were multiplied; all indicating a tendency to social disorganization, which might well occasion both thoughtfulness and alarm. Ch. 29 A. D. 1830.

On the 26th of June, 1830, the King—George the Fourth—died, and was succeeded by his brother, the Duke of Clarence, who ascended the throne under the title of William IV. Death of George IV.

The character of the deceased Monarch was not one on which it is possible to dwell with satisfaction. That he possessed a fine person, winning manners, good talents, and a highly cultivated understanding, will not be disputed; but in spite of these great natural advantages he was unloveable and unloved. He was eminently selfish, and very capricious. His conduct to his early political friends partook of treachery; and his later life was disgraced by his cruelty and infidelity to his wife; by his frequent violations of truth; and by an egotism so great, that it led him to sacrifice everybody and everything to his passions and pleasures. He reigned, either as Regent or King, during one of the most remarkable periods in English history, and yet he personally did nothing for the advancement of his generation. He *lived* only for himself, and he *died* so unregretted, that it has been questioned whether he left behind him a single friend. Such a life conveys a moral, on which it is needless to enlarge. His character.

We must now turn our attention to the state of the Continent.

In FRANCE, the return of Louis XVIII. to the throne of his ancestors restored for a time the blessings of tranquillity to that restless nation. But the boon was not of long continuance. Despotic measures were forced upon the King by the ultra-royalist party, who, at the Restoration, formed the majority in the Chamber of Deputies; men of liberal principles were systematically discountenanced; and a re-action State of France under Louis XVIII.

Ch. 29 encouraged, under which the persecution of Protestants was in some parts carried on both with cruelty and impunity. The evil consequences attendant on such a state of things soon became manifest; and after the final withdrawal of the Allied troops, which took place in 1818, a revolutionary spirit openly displayed itself.

A. D. 1818 to 1830.

On the 13th of February, 1820, the assassination of the Duc de Berri filled France with horror and alarm; for it was but too plain that the murderer was actuated by hatred to the reigning family. The measures that followed were singularly ill-judged. The suffrage was restricted; the press silenced; and the Charter, although not formally violated, was *in spirit* set aside.

Death of Louis XVIII.

Louis did not long survive his restoration to power. On the 16th of September, 1823, having reached the seventieth year of his age, he sank under the weight of accumulated cares and a complication of disorders, and was succeeded by his brother, under the title of Charles X.

Charles X. and his Ministers.

The reign of Charles was one great blunder; it was an incessant struggle to maintain arbitrary power. At length matters approached a crisis. In 1827 the Chamber of Deputies, through which a bill for still further restraining the liberty of printing had been with difficulty carried, was angrily dissolved, and seventy-six new peers were created. This measure was immediately followed by the formation of a Government under Prince Polignac, a man who was remarkably unpopular, and by many absolutely hated. Under the advice of the Prince the famous "Ordinances" were issued, by which the King, acting as an absolute monarch, changed the Constitution, and, in point of fact, cancelled the Charter.

Revolution of the *three days.*

The publication of these decrees, six in number, took place on the 26th of July, 1830, and on the day following, an outbreak commenced. The people rose almost to a man, and sustained for three days a contest with the soldiery, which issued in the complete triumph of the popular cause. By the end of that time the King and his family had fled; a Provi-

sional Government was formed; and the National Guard was placed under the command of the revolutionary hero—La Fayette. Ch. 29 A. D. 1830

On the 9th of August, the Duke of Orleans, who was introduced by the veteran Marquis as the friend of the people, and declared by M. Odillon Barrot, one of the popular leaders, to be in himself "the best of Republics," was called to the Throne, which was henceforward to be supported by free institutions. Charles X., having formally abdicated, was allowed quietly to retire to Scotland, where the English Government provided for him an asylum in Holyrood House.

Revolution in Belgium.

The example thus set by France was instantly imitated in BELGIUM, where the dissatisfaction which had been created by union with Holland, instead of diminishing, had been constantly on the increase. Scarcely had the news of events in Paris reached Brussels, before revolt commenced; the troops of the King were speedily vanquished; and the Revolution, thus inaugurated, eventually led to the separation of the two countries, which, from that time to the present, have formed independent kingdoms. The Dutch tenaciously held the citadel of Antwerp, until November, 1832, when a French army was sent to besiege it. After a sharp struggle it was taken, and delivered over to a Belgian garrison, and the French then retired.

Accession of Leopold to the Throne.

In July, 1831, Prince Leopold, the widower of the Princess Charlotte, was elected King of the Belgians; and under his constitutional rule Belgium has ever since enjoyed a continued stream of prosperity. On the 9th August, 1832, Leopold again married, choosing for his second wife a daughter of Louis Philippe.

Naples and the Sicilies in 1820.

ITALY, after 1815, fell into a state of chronic insurrection. In the year 1820 a spirited attempt was made to throw off the yoke of the King of Naples, and it so far succeeded, that the monarch was obliged to grant the Neapolitans a constitution. But the triumph was short-lived. Austria interfered in favour of despotism, and both Naples and Sicily were obliged to endure the *falsehood* of a ruler who, having solemnly sworn

Ch. 29 to keep the Constitution he had granted, hastened to improve the first opportunity that occurred for its abolition. The Carbonari, by which name the revolutionists were known, from that time plotted in secret.

A. D. 1820.

Outbreak in Sardinia.

Similar events occurred in Sardinia. In the year 1821 an insurrection broke out at Turin, provoked by the arbitrary proceedings of Victor Emmanuel, who had returned in 1815, having, like other princes, learnt nothing by adversity. In consequence of this outbreak, the king was obliged to abdicate in favour of his brother, Charles Felix, who was supposed to favour liberal principles. But again Austria interfered, and the old system was maintained till the year 1831, when the King died, and was succeeded by Charles Albert.

In Tuscany alone, the Grand Duke Leopold, although absolute, contrived to rule without alienating the affections of his people.

The Popes.

Pope Pius VII. enjoyed the dominion restored to him at the Peace of Paris, till the year 1822, when he died, and was succeeded by Leo XII., who reigned seven years. Pius VIII. came to the Pontificate in 1829, and two years afterwards in turn made way for his successor, Gregory XVI.

Spain, on the return of Ferdinand, at the close of the war, quickly relapsed into her old state of servitude. All the acts of the Cortes, which had governed the country during his absence, were disowned; the Inquisition was re-established; the Jesuits again placed in offices of trust; and patriots everywhere persecuted.

Revolution of 1820, and re-action.

In the year 1820, however, an insurrection in favour of liberty broke out, and was partially successful. The king, obliged to proclaim a constitution, and to summon a Cortes, yielded for a short period to the popular will, and governed justly. A re-action, under priestly influence, unfortunately took place two or three years afterwards; and in 1823, Louis XVIII. seized the opportunity to march a large army into Spain, by means of which, although not without a severe struggle, liberty was once more overthrown. The leading patriots fled to England in 1825, and tyranny then resumed its sway.

But it was otherwise with the Central and Southern American colonies. *There*, the Spanish rule had become absolutely intolerable. Every office, from the highest to the lowest, was engrossed by the families of European Spaniards. Contributions of the most arbitrary description were levied on behalf of the mother country, and corruption of the grossest kind disgraced all the courts of law. When to grievances such as these were added restraints on all kinds of industry, and prohibitions on trade with other nations, it need excite no surprise that the colonists became determined, at whatever cost, to achieve their independence.

Spanish American Colonies.

The war for this end, which commenced as early as 1810, lasted fifteen years, during which time the colonies, one by one, gained the object of their ambition. Buenos Ayres became free in 1816; Chili in 1818; Peru in 1821; Guatemala in the same year; and Mexico in 1824.

The final recognition of the colonies by the mother country, as independent republics, wa greatly facilitated by the negotiations of Mr. Canning with the Court of Spain, in the year 1823; it was in relation to the success of these important transactions that the minister uttered his famous boast, that he had "called a new world into existence to redress the balance of the old." In the autumn of this year he made his memorable speech at Plymouth on the policy of Great Britain,—a speech which has rarely been surpassed in beauty. "Our ultimate object," said he, "is the peace of the world; but let it not be said that we cultivate peace either because we fear, or because we are not prepared for war. The resources created by peace are the means of war. In cherishing these resources, we but accumulate those means. Our present repose is no more a proof of our inability to act, than the state of inertness and inactivity, in which I have seen those mighty masses that float in the waters above your town, is a proof they are devoid of strength, and incapable of being fitted for action. You well know how soon one of those stupendous masses, now reposing on their

Recognition by Spain.

Mr. Canning's speech at Plymouth.

Ch. 29 shadows in perfect stillness—how soon, upon any call of patriot-
A. D. 1826 to 1830. ism or necessity, it would assume the likeness of an animated thing, instinct with life and motion; how soon it would ruffle, as it were, its swelling plumage; how quickly it would put forth all its beauty and its bravery, collect its scattered elements of strength, and awake its dormant thunders. Such as is one of those magnificent machines when springing from inaction into a display of its strength, such is England herself; while apparently passive and motionless, she silently causes power to be put forth on an adequate occasion."

Simon Bolivar. The hero of the war in South America was Simon Bolivar. This remarkable man, who was born in the city of Caracas, in the year 1783, but educated in Europe, long conducted the contest with little or no aid from others. At length, however, his gallantry excited public sympathy, and he succeeded in gathering round his standard numerous volunteers, both English and American. These men rendered important services during the struggle, and guided by the genius and energy of their leader, did much towards bringing it to a conclusion. In the year 1826, Bolivar was chosen President for life of the republic of Peru. He died in 1831, full of honours, and justly regarded as having deserved, more than any other individual, the title of Liberator of his Country.

Portugal and her Colonies. The history of PORTUGAL and her colonies during the period we are noting was not dissimilar from that of Spain. The Portuguese, like the Spaniards, proclaimed a constitution in 1820, and convened a Cortes. Having done this, and constituted a Provisional Government, their next step was to intreat their King, John VI., who, when Napoleon seized on Portugal, had removed with his family to Brazil, to return and rule over them as a Constitutional Monarch. To this he assented; but not before he had given the Brazilians a Constitution, and rendered them independent of the mother country for ever.

In 1822 he landed at Lisbon, having previously sworn to uphold the new system. The King was faithful to his oath; but the spirit of re-action, fomented as in Spain by the priests

and nobles, obliged him in 1824 to modify his course. At his death, which took place in 1826, the crown devolved on his eldest son, Dom Pedro, who was then governing Brazil under the title of Emperor, a dignity conferred upon him by the Assembly of Deputies, who, in October, 1822, in consequence of an attempt made by the Portuguese to set aside the acts of King John, and again to subject the country to Portugal, had then met, and declared Brazil an Independent State. Ch. 29 A. D. 1822 to 1830.

Dom Pedro, instead of accepting the Crown of Portugal on the death of his brother, declared his preference for the country of his adoption, and resigned his claim in favour of his daughter, Donna Maria. The rule of the young Queen was, however, too liberal for the parties that had overthrown the Constitution; and in July, 1828, Dom Miguel, the younger brother of Pedro, and the head of the "Apostolicals," as they called themselves, succeeded in an attempt to usurp dominion and re-establish despotism. Accession of Donna Maria

The Emperor of Brazil, naturally indisposed to acquiesce in this violation of right, immediately declared war against his brother, and, aided by England, succeeded in 1834 in regaining the throne for his daughter, who, in 1836, married, as her second husband, Prince Ferdinand of Saxe Coburg. The Brazilians under their Emperor still enjoy all the blessings of the Constitution granted them in 1821; and Portugal is governed on constitutional principles by her present monarch, Pedro V.

GERMANY, and the smaller States of the North, from the year 1815 to that of 1830 suffered little change. Austria, governed by Prince Metternich, contrived to keep its heterogeneous subjects for the most part in good humour, crushing with iron hand every attempt made by the discontented to improve their political condition. Prussia made some slight advances in the path of liberty. In the year 1823 a law was passed, instituting Provisional Assemblies, to which certain privileges, including the assessment of taxes, were appended; States of Germany.

Ch. 29 A. D. 1815 to 1830.

but in the absence of general representation, this failed to satisfy the people. Sweden and Norway, under the rule of Bernadotte, remained happy and prosperous; and Denmark, in the enjoyment of a partially representative system, steadily advanced in national prosperity.

RUSSIA, which had for many years been assiduously pursuing the track marked out for her by Peter the Great, became, after 1815, a preponderating power. The Emperor Alexander, the first to whose lot it fell to guide his country through the dangers of the Napoleonic era, was every way qualified to perform his part with advantage, both to himself and to his people. Calm and mild in manner, and habitually thoughtful and religious, he united in a singular degree the wisdom of the serpent with the resolution of the warrior. Satisfied that when the rest of Europe had been sufficiently humbled, the policy of Napoleon would be, as he had himself expressed it, to "drive the Russian back to his forests," he early broke the alliance with France, and, having made peace with England, remained neutral, till the moment arrived when he found that he could interfere with the greatest effect. That period came in 1805, when he joined the Allies, and, under the pretext of furthering the common cause, seized the opportunity of occupying Wallachia and Moldavia. The successes of the French induced him, a few years afterwards, for a time to change his course, and in 1808 we find him allied with Napoleon, and at war with England and Sweden. By this policy, carried on for four years, he contrived to obtain from Sweden the whole of Finland; and from Turkey, —a country which he never ceased to harass,—the cession of Bessarabia.

The Emperor Alexander.

His astute policy.

Head of the alliance against Napoleon.

In 1812, Alexander again turned his arms against France, and became, in the great European coalition against Napoleon, one of the most powerful of his enemies. After the ruin of that great conqueror, the Russian Emperor steadily pursued the arts of peace, occupying himself incessantly in schemes for the internal improvement of his country, and taking care, at

the same time, to increase the influence he had obtained in the various councils and congresses which followed the close of the war. On the 1st of December, 1825, he died, while on a tour of inspection at Taganrog, on the Sea of Azoff, and Nicholas, his younger brother, mounted the throne. Ch. 29 A. D. 1825.

That Alexander was a kind and benevolent ruler cannot be disputed. The improvement he effected in the condition of the serfs; his zeal in the cause of education; and the encouragement he invariably afforded to philanthropic enterprise, whether directed to the improvement of prisons, the establishment of hospitals, or the circulation of the Scriptures, all prove that his efforts were sincere and well intended. The difficulties he had to contend with were many, but his endeavours to do good were untiring; his success in checking local tyranny, in promoting commerce and agriculture, and in advancing the general cultivation of all classes, if not equal to his hopes or wishes, was, perhaps, as great as could, under the circumstances, have reasonably been anticipated. His general character.

The accession of Nicholas was marked by an insurrection, which called out all the courage and energy that were so singularly characteristic of the new monarch. He instantly appeared in person,—put down the revolt with fire and sword, executed or banished the conspirators, and was from that hour implicitly obeyed. Stern in character, and absolute in rule, Nicholas had no sympathy whatever with the advance of liberalism in Europe, and at once threw his immense influence into the scale of arbitrary power. Accession of Nicholas.

Poland, which had been promised, and had indeed received, a constitution from Alexander, soon felt the difference between the two monarchs. Great dissatisfaction had long been manifested by the Poles with the rule of Constantine, who, as Grand Duke, had repeatedly violated all the forms of law, and, in a variety of ways, outraged the feelings of the people. Under his government the press, which had been declared free, was subjected to a censorship; personal liberty was invaded; troops were quartered on the people; and the constitution, State of Poland.

Ch. 29 proclaimed and guaranteed in 1815, was first despised, and then destroyed.

A. D. 1825. The Poles, on the other hand, were restless and insubordinate. They longed to be again a united nation, and imagined the day to be not far off when Prussia and Austria would be obliged to give up the portions of Poland they had appropriated, and twenty millions of people once more resume their ancient nationality.

This dream they attempted to realize by a vast conspiracy, which burst forth in the year 1830. The students at Warsaw were the first to rise; the young men of the country quickly followed their example; an army was organized,—leaders were appointed,—and, for a time, the Russians were obliged to retire. Failing to effect anything by negotiations with Nicholas, who treated them with profound scorn, the Poles formally renounced their allegiance to the Emperor, and formed a Provisional Government, with Prince Adam Czartoriski at its head.

The Rebellion.

The struggle that followed was a bloody one: the Poles fought bravely, and frequently with success; but nothing could withstand the overwhelming numbers brought into the field by their opponent. Defeat after defeat dispirited their generals, and by the end of 1831 all was over. The youth of Poland hopelessly dispersed, and became exiles throughout Europe, without a home, and often without bread. Thousands of those who remained were forced into the service of the enemy, or sent into Siberia; and their country, no longer permitted to enjoy even the shadow of independence, was incorporated into the Russian empire. Some years afterwards—in 1846—the republic of Cracow was annexed to Austria, and with it the last vestige of Poland disappeared.

Termination of the struggle.

Extinction of Poland.

Before closing this brief account of Russia, it is fitting that a few words should be said about Sclavonian nationality—a subject which can scarcely be discussed without reference to the interests of that great empire.

At present, Pan-Slavism is a doctrine; but the day is, per-

haps, not far distant when it will become *a fact*. The term is intended to signify that the Sclavonian nations, now scattered abroad, and subject to the rule of Russia, Prussia, Turkey, and Austria, *ought* to be a united people. Already one in race, and, allowing for difference in dialect, one in language; numbering, probably, eighty millions; and with a common character underlying the external differences which separate them, it has been argued, that if a common written character could be introduced, and a common literature be promoted, hopes might be entertained that, amid the commotions of the future, a great Sclavonian nation might be formed. In Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, these views, fostered by Russia, have since the year 1820, at which time they were first propounded, spread rapidly; and should the Austrian empire ever fall to pieces—an event always within the range of possibility—there is little doubt but that Russia would take advantage of the theory, and place herself at the head of all the Sclavonian populations.

Ch. 29 A. D. 1822 to 1827.

Pan-Slavism —its nature.

One other great movement which took place during the years whose history we are recounting, still remains to be noticed. We refer to the breaking out of the Greek war, and to the attainment of freedom by the Greek nation—an event which was greatly facilitated by the gradual decay of Turkey.

The Greek revolution.

Long before the rising of the Greeks, the Turkish empire had become greatly weakened by the continued encroachments of Russia. In 1792, the shores of the Black Sea, and the whole of the Crimea, passed into the hands of her great enemy; and in 1798, while Syria was distracted by internal dissensions, Napoleon seized upon Egypt. After the expulsion of the French, which was accomplished in 1802, the Mamelukes, a military order which had for many years exercised a paramount influence in public affairs, again assumed authority, and it was not till the leaders of this body were treacherously massacred at Cairo, in the year 1811, that the government of the country was *really* vested in the Pacha. From that time,

Massacre of the Mamelukes.

Ch. 29 Mehemet Ali, although still nominally subject to the Porte, became, in point of fact, an independent ruler.

A. D. 1822 to 1827. Encouraged by these symptoms of growing weakness, and taking advantage of troubles occasioned by the attempted reforms of the Sultan Mahmoud II., who was the first to see that Turkey could only be saved from extinction by being conformed to European advancement, the Greeks resolved to make one great effort for freedom.

Independence of the Morea. The first rising took place in the Morea early in 1821, where a short but sharp struggle ended in the expulsion of the Turks. A congress was immediately called, and the independence of Greece was proclaimed on the 21st of January, 1822. During the six years which followed, viz., from 1822 to 1827, Turkey fought desperately to regain her ascendancy, and a series of horrors were enacted, which roused the indignation and kindled the sympathies of all Europe.

Massacre in Constantinople. In Constantinople, "every Christian seen in the streets was butchered. Houses were broken open, and the inmates torn from their hiding-places for slaughter. The European ships in the harbour, and the houses of the consuls, were thronged by the unhappy fugitives; but their asylum was disregarded, and the decks of British and French merchantmen were stained with the blood of those whom their captains had vainly endeavoured to protect. In a few days, ten thousand Christians perished in that city."

"And now, throughout every part of the empire, the populace rose. In Adrianople and Smyrna, the streets swam with blood; and from the Danube to the cataracts of the Nile, no Christian could count on an hour's life. The number who perished in a few weeks is estimated at forty thousand. But

Massacre of Scio. even this destruction was surpassed by the massacre at Scio, a year after, when, of eighty thousand inhabitants, the fourth part was slaughtered in cold blood. The number of Christians who were assassinated during the six years' struggle cannot fall short of a hundred thousand." *

* Alison.

The horror of all Europe was loudly expressed. Men of rank and learning, moved by their classical associations, enthusiastically came forward in support of the cause. Lord Byron, then in the full enjoyment of his fame as a poet, vigorously aided the patriots, both with purse and pen, and ultimately sacrificed his life for them, at Missolonghi, whither he had gone to assist the Greeks in person by his sword and by his influence. He died of fever, on the 19th of April, 1824.

At length, after numberless contests, both by sea and land, and frequently marked by disgraceful excesses, but never leading to any decisive result, Russia, France, and England resolved to interfere. The Porte resented the attempt, and would not listen to any terms. The allied fleets were therefore ordered to protect the Greek coast, and to prevent the arrival of further reinforcements. This decision brought matters to a crisis sooner than was expected; for on the 20th of October, 1827, a collision, scarcely accidental and yet not anticipated, took place off Navarino, between ninety-two Turkish ships engaged in carrying troops from Egypt, and the combined fleets of the European powers under the command of Admiral Codrington. The battle which ensued was bloody and decisive. The Turks were utterly routed; and the loss sustained by them was so severe, that they were quickly obliged to abandon the country. A few months afterwards, an independent Greek state sprang into existence, and Count Capo d'Istria, a Russian agent, was chosen President.

Battle of Navarino.

Evacuation of Greece by the Turks.

The peace of Adrianople, in 1829, while it put an end to another war between Russia and Turkey, which had then raged for some years, and during which the Russians had crossed the Balkan and made themselves masters of Adrianople, finally secured the complete emancipation of the Greeks from Turkish control.

In 1831, in consequence of the assassination of Capo d'Istria, which took place at Napoli, on the 24th of October, the Euro-

Ch. 29 pean powers promoted the formation of a kingdom, which, in
A. D. 1833. 1833, was placed under the rule of Prince Otho, a younger son of the King of Bavaria.

The history of Greece, subsequent to its independence, has not altogether realized the hopes that were cherished by its enthusiastic friends. The material prosperity of the country has indeed unquestionably been promoted; but advance in other respects has been slow. Athens has quadrupled the number of its inhabitants, and doubled its commerce; the population generally has increased; and the wealth of the nation has been augmented by successful trade. But the people have not ceased to bear the marks of the chain they so long wore. Their characteristic defects are still those of slaves rather than of freemen. They are cunning and fraudulent, to a greater degree probably than any other people; and, while gifted with many excellent qualities, have hitherto failed to exhibit that moral elevation which, after so severe a discipline as they experienced during their struggles for freedom, might reasonably have been expected to result when peace had been enjoyed for above a quarter of a century.

Character of the Greeks.

It is impossible to close this brief summary of fifteen eventful years, without noticing the *importance* of the occurrences thus briefly narrated, and the *suddenness* with which they broke upon the world. Everywhere we see at work a new and powerful element, contending with old habits of thought, and undermining ancient institutions. Under different forms, and in every variety of development, the democratic principle now presents itself as distinguished above all others by the rapidity of its growth, and the resistlessness of its strength. Its progress will form the chief subject of history in following years; and its triumph, whenever it may be consummated, will probably teach the world lessons as unexpected as they will be instructive.

The democratic element.

CHAPTER XXX.

EUROPE, FROM THE ACCESSION OF LOUIS PHILIPPE TO THE YEAR OF REVOLUTIONS.

THE accession of Louis Philippe to the throne of France was hailed throughout Europe by moderate men of all parties as an event full of promise. A member of the Royal House—for the Duke belonged to the younger branch of the Bourbon family; schooled in adversity—for his father had perished by the guillotine in the revolution of 1793; invested with a certain amount of military reputation—for, as Duc de Chartres, he had served with distinction under Dumouriez in the year 1792; endowed with good talents, and enriched by the experiences of exile and poverty, the new king seemed to be the very man France needed. No one, living or dead, it has been well said, ever passed through such an apprenticeship for the business of his later life as this Louis Philippe. A powerful party in the country speedily sprang up to support his pretensions, and the people generally recognized in the foundation of an Orleanist dynasty, the best guarantee that could be obtained for the enjoyment of peace and constitutional liberty.

Expectations formed of the King.

The result appeared for many years fully to justify the wisdom of the course that had been adopted. The King avoided war, and was supposed to be rather flattered than otherwise by the title of "the Napoleon of Peace," a *sobriquet* which was not unfrequently attached to his name. The domestic habits of the Monarch were blameless; his sons were deservedly *popular*—the eldest of them, the Duke of Orleans,

His peaceful tendencies.

Ch. 30 was much beloved; and the King himself was justly regarded as devoted to the interests and improvement of France.

A. D. 1830 to 1836.

But, notwithstanding these advantages, the crown never rested upon the royal head securely. France was divided into parties; and Legitimists, Buonapartists, Republicans, and Socialists, by turns conspired in order to effect the overthrow of the Government.

The Legitimists.

Only two years after his accession, the Duchess de Berri landed, and in person attempted to awaken the loyalty of the people of La Vendée in favour of her son. The clergy, in spite of every attempt to propitiate them, still favoured the claims of the elder branch of the Bourbons, and many of the upper classes shared in their opinions. In the eyes of the French aristocracy the King was "a Citizen King," owing his elevation almost exclusively to the *bourgeoisie*, or trading classes; and this wounded their pride.

The Buonapartists.

The Buonapartists too, although not a numerous party, were by no means to be despised. The son of Napoleon did not himself live long enough to occasion anxiety, for in the year 1832 he was committed to the tomb, at Schönbrunn, in Austria; but other members of the family survived, and among them one who was then little suspected to possess the qualities he has since manifested.

Prince Louis Napoleon, the nephew of the Emperor, and the son of Louis, who was for a time King of Holland, was at the period of the revolution about two-and-twenty years of age, then an unknown exile, chiefly wandering about Italy and Switzerland. To the astonishment of everybody, this man, in

Louis Napoleon at Strasburg.

the year 1836, suddenly presented himself, with a few followers, at Strasburg, and attempted to seduce the garrison from their allegiance. The apparent madness of the act excited no other feeling than that of contempt. The Prince was, of course, immediately arrested, and soon after, from motives of compassion, was banished to the United States.

Four years afterwards, the same folly was repeated at Boulogne, where (after having returned from America, and lived

for some time in England) he landed in 1840, once more in arms against the Government. Ridicule was the only reception he met with, and confinement in the fortress of Ham his only punishment. From this place he escaped in 1846, and again took refuge in England, despised by the ruling powers of France, and pitied as an enthusiast by the English people. Subsequent events proved, however, that he had more adherents than was suspected. Wild as his projects appeared to be, they at least answered one end—that of keeping his name before the French people, and of associating it with the romantic march of his uncle from Elba to Paris, twenty-five years before

Imprisonment and escape.

An immense impulse was about this time given to his cause by an act of the French Government, now seen to be a very indiscreet one, but then thought to be politic. We refer to the removal of the body of Napoleon from St. Helena, and its deposition in the church of the Invalides. This great national act—for such indeed it was,—was effected, with the consent of the English Government, in the very same year that Louis had landed at Boulogne. The Prince de Joinville, the youngest son of the King, was the bearer of the precious burden, which was received in France with deep and sorrowful enthusiasm, and placed, in great pomp and amid the tears of multitudes, in its final resting-place on the banks of that river, and in the midst of that people whom, in the words of his will, Napoleon declared "he had loved so well."

Body of Napoleon I. brought to France.

The opposition of the Republicans to the new dynasty was, in the meantime, unceasing and unscrupulous. In Paris, as well as in the large towns, the party was both numerous and determined; and the frequent attempts that were made by fanatics of this class to assassinate the King, kept the royal family in a state of perpetual distress and alarm. The death of the Duke of Orleans, who was accidentally killed by a fall from his carriage, in the year 1842, added new sorrows to the household; and, by weakening the connection which, through the Duke, had subsisted between the Crown and the

Death of the Duke of Orleans.

Ch. 30 more advanced Liberals, removed one of the main bulwarks by which it was defended.

A. D. 1842 to 1847.

The King, now approaching seventy years of age—for he was fifty-seven when he ascended the throne—gradually fell more and more under the influence of the Conservative party. M. Guizot, an able and conscientious man, but obstinate and time-serving, was his chief adviser. The army was increased; Paris was fortified at an enormous expense; taxation was augmented; the national debt was greatly enlarged; corruption of the grossest kind was practised; the press was alienated; and public opinion, which had been for some years, both at home and in foreign countries, setting in against the Government, was at length outraged by a series of intrigues, ending in a marriage between the Duc de Montpensier and the presumptive heiress to the throne of Spain. From that time it became but too plain that the Orleans dynasty would not survive the reigning monarch.

The Spanish marriages.

The war with Algiers, begun by Charles X., was carried on with vigour during the greater part of the reign of Louis Philippe; and towards its close, in consequence of the capture of the celebrated Arab chieftain, Abd-el-Kader, who surrendered, in December, 1847, to the Duc d'Aumale, the country was colonized, and French rule firmly established. In this school the modern generals of France were trained to war; and here such men as Cavaignac, Canrobert, St. Arnaud, Pelissier, and others, reaped their laurels and established their fame.

War with Algiers.

A French colony was about the same time established on the Gold Coast; and, with a view to the interests of the Romish Church, Otaheite, an island in the Pacific, was very unscrupulously and arbitrarily taken under protection.

SPAIN remained under the bondage of Ferdinand until the year 1833, when the hated monarch died, and the country was plunged into a civil war relative to the succession. The late king had, in 1829, married, as his second wife, Christina of Naples, and two daughters had been the fruit of the union.

Civil war in Spain.

Ch. 30 A. D. 1833 to 1840.

For the elder of these, then only three years old, Ferdinand was very desirous to secure the throne. The obstacle to be overcome was the Salic Law, which had been introduced by the Bourbons, and according to which female succession was not permittted. This law, which was confirmed by the Cortes in 1812, had, indeed, been subsequently repealed by Ferdinand, in order to make way for his daughter; but it was still regarded by the people generally as a part of the Spanish constitution. When, therefore, on the death of Ferdinand, the infant Isabella was declared Queen, and Christina, her mother, Regent during her minority, an insurrection broke out, headed by Don Carlos, the younger brother of Ferdinand, who regarded himself as, in point of fact, the rightful heir.

Causes of the outbreak.

Parties were immediately formed to support the respective claims of the uncle and of the niece. The former had early secured the support of the priests, and of the advocates of despotic authority; the latter, therefore, naturally fell into the arms of the Constitutionalists. Accordingly, in 1834, the Cortes were again convened, and liberty once more found favour at court. The war soon commenced; battle after battle was fought; horrors of all kinds were perpetrated; and for seven long years the country was a prey to all the miseries which such a state of things is sure to engender. The sympathies of England were naturally with Isabella; and in 1836, with the connivance of the English Government, a Spanish Legion, as it was termed, was formed, intended to act as an auxiliary to her cause. The command was bestowed on General De Lacy Evans, an able and enterprising officer, under whose guidance a favourable turn was soon given to the affairs of the Queen. Espartero also, about this time, began to manifest great talents as a general, and soon became distinguished as an eminent and incorruptible patriot. The efforts of the Queen's party were at length crowned with success, and in September, 1840, the war came to an end.

The Constitutionalists.

The Spanish Legion.

Conclusion of the war.

But the disorganization it had occasioned was not so easily repaired. The Constitutionalists, when in power, became

Ch. 30 disunited, some inclining to further advances in the cause of liberalism, and others clinging to more conservative principles. Espartero belonged to the party of movement; the Queen naturally favoured the other side. In the struggle that followed, it was more than once feared that a second appeal to arms would be found inevitable, a calamity which was only avoided by the abdication of the Queen, which took place three months after the re-establishment of peace.

A. D. 1840 to 1846.

Abdication of the Queen.

Espartero was now proclaimed Regent; and in his new position the patriotic leader fully justified the confidence that had been reposed in him. Three short years were, however, sufficient seriously to diminish, if not to exhaust, his well-earned popularity. The incessant intrigues of the priesthood had by that time been successful in uniting against the Government all who were, from whatever cause, unfavourable to progress. A reaction, similar to that which had overthrown the Cortes in 1825, took place again in 1843, and Espartero was obliged to fly. The latter days of this distinguished man were chiefly spent in England, where he was always received with respect and esteem.

Regency of Espartero.

Narvaez, a determined and unscrupulous soldier, now seized the reins; re-established despotism; ruled by military force; and laughed to scorn every attempt to regulate the royal will by constitutional forms. In the year 1846, the intrigues of Christina, the queen-mother, ended in the marriage of Isabella, then only sixteen, to her cousin, the Duke of Cadiz; while her sister, as has been already narrated, was united to the younger son of the King of France.

Marriage of Isabella.

ENGLAND, during these years, was undergoing a revolution not less important in its consequences, though of a widely different character from those which had been either attempted or accomplished on the Continent.

William IV. ascended the throne at a time when the long-continued agitation for a reform in Parliament had at length reached a point which necessitated action. The Sailor King

at once threw himself into the movement, and avowed his determination to sustain the leaders of the Liberal party in their endeavours to carry a suitable bill through both Houses of Parliament. The Duke of Wellington, then Prime Minister, firmly refused to sanction any measure of the kind, and respectfully resigned his office. Earl Grey was therefore called to power; and in November, 1830, the country saw, for the first time during twenty-three years, a Whig Government supported by the Crown.

Reform Bill.

A Reform Bill was introduced into the House of Commons by Lord John Russell, on the 1st of March, 1831, where it was ably supported, and, after many debates and divisions, followed by a dissolution of Parliament, ultimately carried by a large majority. To the House of Lords, however, the measure was so unpalatable, that no persuasion whatever could avail to gain the consent of their lordships to its becoming law. Again and again the Government were defeated by the Peers, and all further advance seemed impracticable.

General excitement.

The excitement in the country now arose to the highest pitch. Immense meetings were held in Birmingham and other places, and political unions were formed of a very dangerous character. Disgraceful riots broke out at Bristol and Nottingham, and public affairs, for a time, seemed to be rapidly approaching a state in which a fearful convulsion must take place.

Triumph of reform.

At this juncture, the Royal firmness, aided by the sterling good sense of the community, saved the Constitution from being overthrown by tumult. A large creation of new Peers was threatened by the King, and the most resolute determination to carry the measure was evinced by the country. The Duke of Wellington, the leader of the Opposition, at length gave way, in prospect of the perils to which he said the throne itself would be ultimately exposed if resistance were protracted; and on the night of the 4th of June, 1832, a bill, not dissimilar to that which had been so frequently rejected, was passed, which on the 7th received the Royal Assent.

Ch. 30 A new Parliament was immediately summoned, in which the democratic element was found to be decidedly in the ascendant. Measures of the highest importance were quickly presented for consideration. Among these stood forth prominently three in particular—the New Poor Law Bill, the bill for revising the Irish Church, and the bill for emancipating slaves in the West Indies.

A. D. 1832.

The first of these measures, the importance of which can scarcely be over-rated, entirely changed the system of out-door relief, under which abuses of the most frightful character had sprung up, and in so doing not only saved millions of money, but, by elevating the character, improved the condition of the labouring classes. The second, which excited a good deal of bitterness of feeling, is now generally admitted to have removed much that was inconsistent with equity, and to have strengthened, rather than otherwise, the Establishment, which it was predicted would be overthrown. The third involves a history of too much importance to be disposed of in a few lines.

New Poor Law Bill.

The abolition of the Slave *Trade*, a question which had been agitated ever since 1787, when Wilberforce, Clarkson, and others first succeeded in awakening the country to a sense of its enormous guilt, had now been long settled. As early as the year 1806 the traffic had been declared illegal; and in the year following severe penalties were attached to any infraction of the law then passed, absolutely forbidding British subjects to take any part in it. These penalties, however, proved insufficient to check the trade in human flesh; and in 1811 another act was passed, by which it was declared felony to buy or sell a negro. Thirteen years after—in 1824—the traffic was denounced as piratical; and now, any person engaged in it is liable to the punishment of transportation for life.

The Slave Trade.

Still, *slavery*, as distinguished from the trade, existed in all the British colonies, and men and women, with no fault beyond the colour of their skin, could be bought and sold as freely as cattle. In vain had the abolitionists urged upon

Parliament the duty of alleviating the lot, and of finally emancipating the negro race in the colonies. The West India interest was too strong in the House of Commons to admit of any measure of the kind being carried. But after the passing of the Reform Bill, which added greatly to the strength of the popular element, this state of things was changed. The English people had now determined that, at whatever cost, so dark a blot on the national character should be for ever washed out; and resistance to the expression of this feeling was soon found to be unavailing. The Ministry of Lord Grey took the matter in hand; and a bill was passed declaring that on and after the 1st of August, 1834, every subject of the British Crown should be free. A period of apprenticeship, lasting four years, followed; and on the 1st of August, 1838, eight hundred thousand African bondmen were fully and unconditionally set at liberty.

Ch. 30 A. D. 1834.

Abolition of Slavery.

"On the evening of the day preceding that which witnessed the actual bestowment of the inestimable boon on the apprentices of Jamaica, the towns and neighbouring stations throughout the island," says an eyewitness, "were crowded with people specially interested in the event, who, filling the different places of worship, remained, in some instances performing different acts of devotion, until the day of liberty dawned, when they saluted it with the most joyous acclaim; others, before and after similar services, dispersed themselves in different directions through the towns and villages, singing the national anthem and devotional hymns, occasionally rending the air with their acclamations of 'Freedom's come! We are free, we are free—our wives and our children are free!' On the following day, the places of worship were thrown open, and crowded almost to suffocation. Devout thanksgivings to God, mingled with songs of praise, ascended up to heaven from every part of the land. The scenes presented exceeded all description. The whole island was in a state of joyous excitement, chastened and regulated by the hallowed *influences of religion.*"

Day of emancipation.

Ch. 30 — A. D. 1834.

The planters received from Parliament a grant of thirty millions of money for the loss they sustained by this great act of justice, and the country, without a murmur, willingly submitted to the additional burdens thrown upon it as the price of mercy. The act itself, the proudest in the annals of Englishmen, will for ever remain as the best monument of a people who proved their own love of freedom by the sacrifices they made to impart it to others

Action of England on other nations.

The action of England on the other powers of Europe, in relation to slavery and the slave trade, if not so successful as might be wished, has been highly creditable to the nation. At the Congress of Vienna, the question was introduced by the British Plenipotentiary, and the principle of abolition was fully recognized, the various powers pledging themselves to suppress the trade. Since then, every civilized nation, whether in Europe or America, has absolutely prohibited the traffic, and, with the exception of the United States, has agreed to permit its ships to be searched whenever suspicion arises that slaves may be on board

Continuation of the trade.

There is, however, too much reason to fear that the trade is still carried on clandestinely to a frightful extent. Vigilantly do the cruisers of England and France watch the shores of Africa, at a sad cost of precious life; but avarice is too powerful to be easily balked of its prey. Slavers, built for the purpose, swift and narrow, annually obtain cargoes, in spite of all the watchful care exercised to prevent them; and it is estimated that at least a hundred thousand victims fall every year into the hands of the spoiler, while the horrors of the middle passage, instead of being diminished, are probably increased.

Abolition of slavery the only remedy.

The only remedies for this gigantic evil are now generally felt to be the abolition of slavery itself, and the civilization of the interior of Africa. The *first* seems to be yet distant, for slaves form the bulk of the population in the southern states of America, and are deemed essential to the production of cotton. The *latter* can only be accomplished by proving to the various African chiefs, who now devote them-

selves to the capture and sale of their countrymen, that legiti- Ch. 30
mate trade would be more profitable to them in the end, than A. D.
the continuance of so accursed a commerce in man. For this 1834
purpose, negotiations have been opened with the chiefs; and to
the recent discoveries of Dr. Livingstone encourage the hope 1837.
that a better day is about to dawn on the oppressed children of Ham.

But to return to our brief sketch of English affairs. In 1834 the Whig ministry was overthrown, and the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel returned to office. Their tenure of power was, however, but of short duration. In the year following the retirement of Lord Grey, the Tory administration came to an end, and was succeeded by the ministry of Lord Melbourne, under whose auspices municipal reform, as the complement of that which had already been effected in the representation, was carried out. By the acts now passed, the administration of local affairs in the various corporations of the empire was conformed to that of the nation, by the admission of large bodies of the rate-payers to the right of choosing their magistrates.

Municipal Corporation Bill.

The growing infirmities of the King, during this year, clearly indicated that his life would not be of long continuance. On the 20th of June (1837) he sank under accumulated disorders, and was succeeded by Her Majesty Queen Victoria. By this event the kingdom of Hanover was separated from Britain, as its constitution forbad female succession. The crown, therefore, now passed to the Duke of Cumberland, who ascended the throne under the title of King Ernest Augustus. He reigned as such until his death, which took place in 1851, when he was succeeded by his son, George V.

Death of William IV.

William IV., who was sixty-five years of age when he ascended the throne, was a very different man from the fascinating but selfish monarch whom he succeeded. He had early been placed in the navy, and he had acquired there most of the characteristics which are peculiar to that profession. He was *frank, straightforward*, and conscientious, but limited in

His character.

Ch. 30 A. D. 1838.

his views, and very deficient in general cultivation of mind. His weakness was that form of vanity which delights in popular approbation, and to obtain this he affected, when first called to royal power, a degree of familiarity which somewhat impaired his dignity. He enjoyed, during his seven years' reign, the companionship of an admirable wife, the Princess Adelaide of Saxe Meiningen, by whom he had two children, neither of which survived infancy, and he died in the enjoyment of universal respect and esteem.

Coronation of Queen Victoria.

The coronation of Queen Victoria, which took place on the 28th of June, 1838, was a magnificent spectacle, and was welcomed with unfeigned joy by all who witnessed it. The change of rulers was on the whole favourable to the Whigs, under whose auspices the Princess Royal had been carefully educated by her mother, the Duchess of Kent. Public affairs consequently suffered no interruption.

The Canadian rebellion, which broke out in the year 1837, for a little time threw a dark shadow across the path of the young Queen. Its rapid suppression, and the immediate removal of real grievances, restored tranquillity, and happily led to increased loyalty on the part of the colonists.

Marriage of the Queen.

The marriage of the Queen to Prince Albert of Saxe Coburg, which took place on the 10th of February, 1840, gave great satisfaction to the nation, and has happily been productive of the highest domestic happiness to the parties more immediately concerned.

War in Affghanistan.

The Affghan war, which opened in December, 1838, eventually brought with it an unparalleled calamity to the British army in India. At first, success appeared to be secure. The capture of Ghuznee, a strongly fortified place, which fell on the 22nd of July, 1839, was one of the most gallant exploits of the English army. It led to an immediate and triumphant entrance into Cabul, and the restoration of the monarch for whose benefit the expedition had been undertaken. The counteraction of Russian influences, and certain commercial advantages, were to be the reward of the enterprise.

All remained quiet at Cabul under the new sovereign, who was supported by the English army, until the winter of 1839, when discontent began to show itself, in consequence of some of the measures of the restored king, whose proceedings were unfortunately identified with those of the British. In April, 1841, General Elphinstone, then a great invalid, assumed the command of the English forces; and in the month of November following, a new and violent insurrection suddenly and unexpectedly burst forth. Sir Alexander Burnes, and many others, were murdered, and the fort in which the provisions of the army was stored, fell into the hands of the barbarians.

Disastrous retreat of the English.

On the 6th of January, 1842, the retreat of the army commenced; and without wood, money, or provisions—with ladies and children among its files—the troops started on a march of ninety miles, through passes covered with snow. The cold was intense. The soldiers, ill-fed and thoroughly dispirited, sank rapidly, and one by one perished. It was the retreat from Moscow repeated, with aggravated miseries. The survivors, surrounded by implacable enemies who kept up an incessant fire upon them, fought their way day by day through the terrible defiles of the Khyber Pass, until at length *all* fell or were captured—one man alone, Dr. Brydone, escaping to bring the sad news to General Sale at Jellalabad.

The second invasion of Cabul.

The sensation produced in England by the intelligence was profound. Party warfare was hushed in an instant, all classes agreeing in the necessity of this disaster being instantly repaired. Fresh forces were immediately despatched, and in the following year the English army once more forced its way to Cabul; rescued those who had been taken prisoners, or left as hostages; destroyed the forts; and then abandoned Affghanistan to its accustomed anarchy and crime.

Annexation of Scinde.

Scinde, which had long been tributary to Cabul, was in 1843 annexed to the British empire; and the war with China, which had been commenced in 1840, in consequence of the destruction of a large quantity of opium by the Chinese Commissioner, *Lin*, was closed by a treaty of peace in the same

Ch. 30 year, by which Hong Kong was ceded to the British crown, five ports were thrown open to trade, and a large sum paid by the Chinese towards the expenses of the war.

A. D. 1844.

But peace was not of long duration. At the end of 1843 war again broke out in India. Gwalior was invaded, and by the 13th of January, 1844, was in the occupation of the British. About this time Lord Ellenborough, who had arrived in Calcutta as Governor-General two years before, was recalled, and Sir Henry Hardinge appointed as his successor.

Contest with the Sikhs

Within a year and a half after his landing, Sir Henry Hardinge found himself, notwithstanding every effort to avoid it, engaged in a desperate contest with the Sikhs, a brave and powerful nation inhabiting the Punjaub, or country of the five rivers, and having dominions in Mooltan, Affghanistan East, and Cashmere. The Sikh army, which had been formed and trained by French officers, was the most formidable in India, and it panted for a war with England. On the 17th of December, 1845, the battle of Moodkee was fought, Lord Gough acting as commander-in-chief, and Sir Henry Hardinge, with generous devotion, serving under him. The contest was sharp and bloody, but crowned with success. Sir Robert Sale, the hero of Jellalabad, fell on this occasion.

Three great battles.

The battles of Ferozeshah, Aliwal, and Sobraon, followed—the most desperate engagements, probably, that were ever fought in India. In each of these engagements the most heroic prowess was displayed, and victory, although at a frightful cost of life, was secured. Lahore, the capital of the enemy, was immediately occupied by the English.

Incorporation of the Punjaub.

In 1848 the Punjaub was again the theatre of disturbances, and early in 1849 two more terrible battles, those of Chillianwallah and Goojerat, were fought. The results were decisive; and on the 29th of March, 1849, the Punjaub was incorporated with the British empire, after which India for some years enjoyed repose.

While these events were in progress, the Melbourne ministry, from a variety of causes, became too weak to carry

on the government of the country, and in 1841 the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel again took the reins. Ch. 30 A. D. 1841.

Of the domestic legislation which the Melbourne ministry promoted, no measure probably was received with greater satisfaction, or has been productive of happier results, than that which reduced the postage on letters to the uniform rate of one penny. The new law came into operation on the 18th of January, 1840, and has more than justified all that was expected from it. Ten years afterwards the number of letters sent through the post was found to be quadrupled; and although a considerable falling off in revenue has been experienced, no one regrets the change, for, as it has been truly said, "so great an increase in internal communication cannot have taken place without a vast addition to human happiness, and no small strengthening of domestic love, the strongest safeguard of human virtue." Penny Postage Act.

The great act of the Wellington and Peel ministry was the repeal of the Corn Laws. For many years the modification of these laws had been an object steadily pursued by a large and increasing party in the country; attention to the subject had now become a political necessity. Agitation for the entire removal of all restrictions on the import of food was incessant. A powerful body, under the title of the Anti-Corn Law League, an association formed at Manchester in September, 1838, for the promotion of free trade, held meetings in every town, and, enjoying the liberal support of the manufacturing interest, spared no expense in endeavors to accomplish so important an object. The great champion of the movement, Mr. Cobden, himself a Manchester manufacturer, displayed, during this contest, an amount of energy and talent which at once marked him out as a man whose influence would not pass away with the struggle which had called it forth. Anti-Corn Law League.

Sir Robert Peel was not unfavorable to a modification of the law, and readily consented to lower the scale by which the tax on *foreign corn* was regulated; but he was unwilling to Opinions of Sir R. Peel.

Ch. 30 abolish the duty altogether. Thus things continued till 1845, when, partly in consequence of prevailing distress occasioned by the rapid decline of trade, and partly owing to constant pressure from without, concessions were made in favor of Canada, and grain from that country was allowed to enter at a low rate of duty. The failure of the harvest in 1845; commercial collapse, occasioned by inordinate speculation; and Irish distress, all combined to strengthen the arguments of those who still clamored for unconditional repeal: and after the great Irish famine in 1845, Sir Robert Peel, in defiance of his party, carried a bill to that effect, and soon after retired from office.

A. D. 1845.

Repeal of the Corn Laws.

Emigration and colonization.

While this great struggle was pending, the attention of the country had been more than once directed to the importance of promoting emigration, especially to the Australias, where the foundation of new empires was now beginning to be laid. The settlement at Swan River had been made as early as 1820, but the colonies of South Australia, of Victoria, and of New Zealand, all of which sprang into existence between 1830 and 1837, were exhibiting a rapidity of progress in the increase of their population, and the extension of their commerce, hitherto without example.

Chartist Riots.

The distresses of 1838, and the Chartist riots which followed, issuing sometimes, as at Newport in Wales, in serious loss of life, served to direct the attention of restless and disturbed spirits to these new countries, where profitable scope might be found for the energies of men who fancied themselves wronged by the wealthier classes, and debarred from the exercise of political rights.

The repeal of the Navigation Laws; the discovery of gold; and the liberal manner in which the colonies have been dealt with by the home government, have all tended to increase the impulse then given; and these valuable dependencies of the British Crown are now a most important field for the employment of capital, for commercial enterprise, and for the settlement of unemployed portions of the home population.

During the ministry of Sir Robert Peel various financial measures of the utmost importance to the country were carried. A property and income tax upon all incomes exceeding £150 was imposed in 1842, and at the same time a repeal of duties on 750 articles in the tariff was effected. The impulse given to trade was immediate; and this spirited legislation, which was accompanied by the amendment of the laws on bankruptcy, and by judicious enactments for regulating the employment of women and children in mines and factories, was received by all classes with satisfaction and hope.

Financial changes

To the RAILWAY MANIA, as it was termed, which raged so furiously during the years 1844 and 1845, attention must now be specially directed. The extravagance and madness which characterized this period can scarcely be exaggerated. It commenced, as such speculative follies generally do, in envy and covetousness — passions which were excited by the apparent success which attended railway enterprise at its commencement.

Railway mania.

"The first consequence was a rage for shares in the earlier lines; and the few fortunate speculators who held them soon sold out, at prices which enabled them to realize large fortunes, sometimes in a few days." The effect of this was electric. "The passion for gain, now thoroughly awakened, seized upon all classes, pervaded both sexes, and swept away all understandings. The few who ventured to withstand the torrent were ridiculed as alarmists."

"Every one concerned, however remotely, in forming the net-work which was to overspread the country was now worked to death, so great was the universal anxiety to get new lines formed. Surveyors, with theodolites and chains, were incessantly travelling the country in every direction; and when the proprietor refused his consent to their entry, it was stealthily obtained at night, or openly asserted in daylight by large bodies of men. Nothing could resist the universal mania.

Multiplication of companies

"As the *season* passed on, and the 30th of November

Ch. 30 (1845), the last day for lodging plans with the Board of Trade, approached, the pressure and excitement became unparalleled. Lithographers by hundreds were brought over from Belgium and France, to aid in making the plans; the engineers and their clerks sat up all night, and several of them, in two years, made large fortunes. On the evening of the closing day the doors of the Board of Trade were besieged by a clamorous crowd, contending for admission, as at the pit doors of the Opera when a popular actress is to perform; above six hundred plans were thrust in before the doors closed at midnight on the 30th November. The capital required for their construction was £270,950,000, and above twenty-three millions of money was required to be deposited before the acts could be applied for.

A. D. 1845.

Enormous sums needed.

Cost of litigation.

"It was computed that no less than sixteen millions was expended in surveys, legislation, or litigation, connected with the bills got up during the railway mania, before they got into Parliament. Of the three hundred millions, in round numbers, which the lines were computed to cost, nearly a third has never paid anything in the shape of dividend, and on the remaining two-thirds the net receipts, after deducting the working expenses, would not, on an average, exceed three per cent.

"From the extravagant speculations and unbounded gains and losses of these years," says Sir Archibald Alison, to whom we are indebted for this graphic account of the mania, "may be dated a great change, and one materially for the worse, in the mercantile character of the country. In the Joint Stock Companies, which succeeded the individual direction of the old English merchant, facilities to fraud were multiplied, and inducements to probity taken away. Every species of fraud,—false balance sheets, false dividends, cooked accounts,—was perpetrated, in some cases with long continued concealment, and immense profits. When at length the perpetrators of the iniquity had in general escaped, it was found that, aware of what was coming, they had in time disposed of their shares to

Moral effects of the mania.

the widow and orphan, who, deceived by their representations, bore the penalty of their sins."*

The Foreign and Colonial relations of the country, from 1830 to 1846, with the exception of Indian conquests, which have been already described, underwent no great change. An unfortunate Caffre war was happily terminated by the submission of the chiefs, and a second rupture with the Chinese also came to an end without much fighting.

State of Turkey.

TURKEY, after the battle of Navarino, less able than ever to contend with Russia on the one hand, and her rebellious Pachas on the other, was subjected to new troubles. Egypt, under Mehemet Ali, broke altogether with her nominal lord in 1831; openly defied the Porte by marching an army into Syria; and would, unquestionably, have occupied Constantinople, had not Russia, in 1833, interfered to prevent the prey from falling into other hands than her own. A second war was commenced in 1840, and again Russia hindered the Egyptians from occupying Turkey. This time, however, the other powers of Europe acted with her. In the year 1841 Beyrout and Jean d'Acre were taken by the allied fleet; Ibrahim Pacha was obliged to vacate Syria; and Egypt, as an hereditary sovereignty, was guaranteed to Mehemet Ali, on condition of the payment of an annual tribute.

Egyptian invasion.

The United States.

The history of the UNITED STATES since the French Revolution, vast and varied as are the interests involved, must be compressed into few lines; for the principle laid down by Washington, that America should interfere as little as possible with European politics, has, in the main, been adhered to. Under the successive presidencies of the elder Adams, of Jefferson, of Madison, of Monroe, of John Quincy Adams, of Jackson, Van Buren, Harrison, Tyler, and Polk, this great country, up to the period we are describing, made rapid progress in territory, population, and political influence.

* Alison's "History of Europe, from the Fall of Napoleon in 1815, to the Accession of Louis Napoleon in 1852." 8 vols. 8vo. Blackwood, Edinburgh.

Ch. 30 A. D. 1846. At the death of Washington the States of the Union were sixteen in number; in 1802 Ohio was added; in 1803 Louisiana was purchased from France, and in 1812 recognized as a separate State; Indiana was created in 1815, and Mississippi the year following; Illinois was added in 1818, Alabama in 1819, and Maine in 1820. In 1821 Florida was ceded by Spain, and Missouri was added during the same year; Michigan and Arkansas followed in 1836, and Texas was annexed in 1845. Since then California and New Mexico, Wisconsin, and Iowa, have swelled the list, and so doubled the number of States which submitted to the first President. The population, then probably under two millions, now exceeds twenty millions, and every year vast accessions take place, not only from natural increase, but from the constant tide of emigration which for many years has steadily set in from Germany and Ireland.

Increase of population.

Wars of the Union. The *wars* of the Union, since the country became free from British control, have not been either numerous or important. From 1812 to 1815, a struggle with England, arising out of the refusal of American ships to submit to be searched, led to conflicts at sea which issued in the practical abandonment of the claim. Subsequent disputes, chiefly relating to boundaries, have been amicably settled, and there is now every reason to hope that contests so unnatural as those between English and Americans will never be repeated. The war with Mexico, which resulted in the utter defeat of the more Southern Republic, scarcely comes within the scope of European history.

State of political parties Political parties in the United States correspond to a great extent with our own. Federalists on the one side, and Democrats on the other, in the main divide the country, and represent the respective principles of conservatism and of progress. The one dark spot on the escutcheon of America is negro slavery, which in the South seems to be regarded as a settled institution. The *inconsistency* of such a bondage with the celebrated declaration of the rights of man is obvious enough, and the *danger* to which it exposes the Union is every year

felt by an increasing number of the citizens; but hitherto all attempts at promoting abolition have only resulted in embittering the lot, and rivetting the chains of the captives. Ch. 30 A. D. 1847.

But we must return to the Old World, over which coming events began to project their shadows in the year 1847.

ENGLAND at this period (1846–7) suffered severely. The very high prices demanded for the necessaries of life, and the consequent distress brought upon large classes of the people; the fearful famine in Ireland, occasioned by successive failures in the potato crop, which reached its height at this time, and which brought with it scenes of horror almost unparalleled in European history; the immense sacrifices which were made by England to meet the emergency; the rapid fall of Consols; the unprecedented depreciation of railway property; *all* indicated a crisis destined severely to try the energies of the nation. State of England.

The measures of Government were vigorous and well directed. Restrictions on the introduction of foreign grain to Ireland were instantly removed; the Navigation Laws were suspended, in order to give every facility for importation from foreign countries; the Irish Poor Law was both extended and modified; enormous sums were raised by private subscription; depots of corn and meal were formed; three millions of human beings were fed by public charity; and the plague which followed was at length, by the mercy of God, stayed: but not before nearly half a million of people had perished. Between public grants and private subscriptions, nearly eight millions sterling were in these two years bestowed by Great Britain upon Ireland, and this during a time when Consols had fallen to 79, and when railway property had depreciated above 50 per cent. The emigration that followed, chiefly to America, was so large, that ten years after the commencement of the famine it was found that the population of Ireland had diminished by two millions and a half. Irish famine.

SWITZERLAND, during a part of this time (1847), was distracted *by civil commotions*, arising out of Jesuitical intrigues, Troubles in Switzerland.

Ch. 80 the objects of which were to separate the seven Roman Catholic cantons, and to form them into a league, under the name of the Sonderbund, to defend convents and church property against the Federal Government. The army of the Federation was called out. Fribourgh and Lucerne, the head-quarters of the priestly party, were obliged to surrender, and the cost of the war was finally thrown upon the deluded cantons.

A. D. 1847.

France. State of parties.

FRANCE, in which it has been well said, "there exists no attachment to any individual, and no respect for any institution," never appeared more tranquil than it did in the beginning of the year 1848. The government, identified with the material interests of the middle classes, apparently enjoyed perfect security, and relying on its strength, for a long time disregarded the reproaches that were thrown upon it on all sides, on account of the notorious corruption, and gross abuse of patronage for political ends, which marked all its proceedings. But at length danger became evident; the rupture of the alliance with England, consequent on Spanish intrigues—financial disorders—commercial losses—and, above all, the discoveries which were made from time to time of attempts to screen the most abominable frauds, led to a review of the proceedings of the last eighteen years, and to inquiries by the press as to what had actually been gained by the revolution of 1830. The votes of the Chambers were examined, and it soon came out that, "in every majority, more than one-half consisted of public functionaries." The state of the franchise was brought under review, when it appeared that thousands who were obliged to perform the most important and laborious civil duties, such as service in the National Guard, were altogether unrepresented.

Dissatisfaction with the Government.

Movement for reform.

The discussions which followed were exceedingly distasteful to the Government, and measures of repression were attempted. "The mayors of the communes were forbidden to allow deputies to meet their constituents at public dinners; newspapers were prosecuted; and finally, a reform banquet, which the liberal party had organized, was positively forbidden to

take place, the Government declaring its intention to resist the attempt to hold it, if needful, with cannon." *

Ch. 30

A. D. 1848.

This brought matters to a crisis. The 22nd of February, the day fixed for the banquet, came at last, and it was then found expedient, on account of the determination of the Government, to abandon the project. But the mischief was done. Crowds filled the streets, uttering revolutionary cries; and on the following day, at the instigation of the National Guard, the Guizot Ministry was dissolved.

Riots, and loss of life.

The mob, excited and delighted by the news, now hurried from house to house, cheering and crying for an illumination. All went on well till the people arrived before the hotel of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, when a single shot, fired accidentally it is supposed, broke the leg of a horse on which the officer commanding a detachment of troops was then sitting. In an instant, orders were given to fire upon the crowd; and so effectually was this done, that upwards of fifty persons were either killed or wounded.

The Revolution.

Dispersion, and cries for vengeance, immediately followed; barricades sprang up as if by magic; and before morning all Paris was in arms, exasperated by the impression which then prevailed, although since proved to be false, that the massacre had been perpetrated by authority. In a few hours all was over—the Government was in a state of paralysis; the troops of the line were withdrawn; the municipal guard disbanded; the King had abdicated and fled; and the regency of the Duchess of Orleans, as guardian of the interests of the Count de Paris, was proclaimed.

The Duchess of Orleans and her sons.

Alas! it was too late. The Duchess, who, with a spirit worthy of better fortune, had instantly proceeded to the Chamber, leading her two sons by the hand, was obliged to fly before an infuriated mob, who, with savage gesticulations and threats, demanded a republic. A Provisional Government was accordingly formed, and Lamartine was appointed Minister of Foreign

* "*A Year of Revolution*;" by the Marquis of Normanby.

Ch. 80 A. D. 1848. Affairs,—a man who, soon after, by his resistless eloquence, and high moral courage, saved Paris from massacre and plunder.

State of Paris. For sixty hours after the departure of the mob from the Chamber of Deputies, the entire city was in the hands of an infuriated rabble, half drunk, and almost all armed. Nearly sixty thousand people, twelve thousand of whom were armed, filled the Place du Grève and its environs; and from all this vast multitude rose the cry for blood and vengeance. Lamartine, with bayonets pointed at his breast, stood firm,—declared his abhorrence of a reign of terror, and boldly proposed and obtained, by the force of his eloquence alone, the abolition of the punishment of death for political offences.

The ascendancy thus gained, he managed to keep until order was in some degree restored, and the Provisional Government established. The most deplorable excesses had, however, taken place. For nearly a fortnight the palace of the Tuileries was in the possession of the lowest of the mob. The orgies carried on during this period, as described by an eyewitness who accidentally obtained entrance, were of the most disgusting character. Men in *robes de chambre*, made out of the damask hangings or the velvet curtains, "were parading about the palace. One fellow had the King's cocked hat stuck upon his head. The vilest women of the town were on the floors, dressed in satin and silver, while works of art of the most costly kind were thrown about in all directions. Valuable pictures were cut into strips with a knife. The toilette tables of the royal ladies were ransacked, and low debauchery of the grossest kind polluted every chamber.

Sack of the Tuileries.

Destruction of Neuilly. Neuilly, the country palace of Louis Philippe, was sacked and burnt; and Suresnes, a beautiful villa belonging to Baron Rothschild, full of objects of art and luxury, was also gutted and destroyed.

The proceedings of the Provisional Government were marked by an indecision and a want of practical wisdom rarely manifested. The more violent members, such as Ledru Rollin and Cremieux, overruled or thwarted the moderate counsels

of Lamartine; while Louis Blanc, and Albert the *ouvrier*, advocated, and endeavoured to carry into practice, the most absurd theories in relation to the organization of labor. *Ateliers Nationaux*, as they were termed, or public workshops for the unemployed, were opened, and tens of thousands of working men became the temporary pensioners of the State. English mechanics, laborers, and servants were everywhere discharged, and the greatest distress was occasioned to thousands of poor families who had long been resident in France. The evil thus created was for a time aggravated by the unwillingness or inability of the Government to return the money that had been deposited by these persons in the savings banks.

Organization of labor.

The unscrupulous attempts that were made to control the elections by Ledru Rollin, acting as Minister of the Interior, and the absurdities into which Louis Blanc and Albert fell in their attempts to "organize labour," thoroughly disgusted all but the Jacobin clubs and the Communists, and it soon became evident that this desperate party must be ejected from power, even though the attempt should involve another struggle in the streets. Confidence, credit, employment, money, were all fast departing, and everything tended to indicate the rapid approach of anarchy. Processions of ragged urchins, headed by the curés, and the servants of the church in gold-laced liveries, consecrated, amid the secret curses of starving shopkeepers, the sickly poplars which were everywhere stuck into the ground, and called Trees of Liberty; while thoughtful men could not fail to be struck with the aptness of the illustration these proceedings furnished of the unreal and unnatural state of things which everywhere prevailed.

Violence of Ledru Rollin.

Progress of disorder.

At length the discordant elements of society could no longer be even *outwardly* united. Property was openly attacked as "robbery;" and schemes for the spoliation of the rich were advocated, under the name of "justice to the laboring classes." The very existence of civilized society was at stake. On the 16th of *May a second* irruption of the mob, yelling and

Irruption of the mob.

Ch. 30 screaming under the influence of the wildest excitement, and brandishing knives and bayonets, put the Chamber to flight, and filled Paris with terror. Lamartine could no longer "ride the whirlwind;" his popularity was gone, and with it the last chance of avoiding a conflict with the masses.

A. D. 1848.

State of siege.

On the 23rd of June barricades once more sprang up, and fighting again began. It was now an outbreak of the lower orders exclusively, and the question to be decided was whether property should or should not be protected. For the moment political dissensions were hushed; Paris was placed in a state of siege; and all executive power was vested in General Cavaignac.

Four days in the streets.

The struggle, which lasted four days, was severe and bloody. The army suffered a frightful loss of officers, who were picked off by skilled marksmen from the windows of houses, and the most atrocious acts of cruelty were perpetrated on the unhappy soldiers who fell into the hands of the insurgents. But Cavaignac was determined, at whatever cost, to restore order. Artillery swept the streets, and at length triumphed over all obstacles; but not before fifteen or sixteen thousand persons had been killed or wounded, and a loss of property occasioned to the extent of above a million of money.

Death of the Archbishop of Paris.

Among the last victims of the strife was the good Archbishop of Paris, who, moved by pity, had applied to the General in command, for permission to go amongst the insurgents with a message of peace. The benevolence that instigated the attempt cannot be too highly commended, but its result was fatal. The venerable prelate had scarcely had time to pronounce a few words of persuasive charity, when he fell under the last volley which was fired from the barricades.

The elections which soon after followed were unfavorable to the Government, and Cavaignac, who had rendered such important services, found himself obliged to withdraw from power, in order to make room for Prince Louis Napoleon, who had been elected to the Presidency by the votes of above

five millions and a half of the French people. On the 18th of December (1848) the Prince took the usual oaths, pledged his word to sustain the constitution, read a short address to the Deputies, and was on the whole favorably received. Ch. 30 A. D. 1848.

While these events were transpiring in Paris, the state of Europe was most extraordinary. Austria, Italy, Prussia, the smaller States of Germany, — all were revolutionized; crowns and sceptres were scattered as by a raging hurricane, and monarchies, the most ancient and powerful, crumbled and fell in an hour. Within a single month after the outbreak in Paris, nearly all Europe was triumphing in liberty; constitutions of the most liberal character had been readily granted; and everything seemed to promise that the reign of absolutism was now drawing to a close. Metternich, who had so long controlled Continental politics, fled for his life, exclaiming, "*After me the deluge!*" The King of Bavaria abdicated. The King of Prussia (Frederick William the Fourth, who had succeeded to the throne in 1840) yielded all that was demanded of him; and on the 18th of May a German Parliament met at Frankfort, consisting of deputies from all parts, returned according to the numbers of the populations. Hungary claimed and obtained its ancient rights. Bohemia attempted to realize at Prague her long cherished scheme of Sclavonian nationality. Italy was free, from the Alps to the Adriatic. In Sardinia, Tuscany, Modena, and Parma, constitutions were at once promised and proclaimed. The Austrians were driven from Lombardy and Venice; and Naples rejoiced in a liberty to which it had long been a stranger. Even the Pope declared himself a reformer.

Extraordinary state of Europe.

Abdication and flight of monarchs.

Gregory XVI. died in the month of June, 1846, and Pius IX. then succeeded to the Pontificate. He was at that time only fifty-four years of age, the youngest Pope ever known, and by no means unfavorable to progress. Believing that the growth of democracy was inevitable, he entertained the hope that the Church, as the friend of the people, might lead and guide the new power. When, therefore, the French Revolution burst

The Pope.

Ch. 80 out, the Pontiff was everywhere recognized as the friend of liberalism. Rome, under his sway, already enjoyed a municipal and an elective council, and he now added a senate and a chamber of deputies.

A. D. 1848.

But all these bright prospects were doomed to pass away under the influence of a reaction, which might have been anticipated, but for which the people were utterly unprepared. The Parisians, as we have already seen, instead of consolidating their liberties, fell to shedding blood in defence of the wildest and most impracticable theories. The Frankfort Parliament wasted its time and energies in discussions which led to no practical result; while the various monarchs who at first bowed to the storm, wiser in their generation than the peoples, began to gather together their scattered forces, and to prepare for regaining the power they had lost.

Commencement of reaction.

Austria took the initiative. The Court, which had removed from Vienna to Innspruck, in the Tyrol, arranged its plans for bringing the army, which was still faithful to the Emperor, to bear against the revolutionists. The first object was to recover Northern Italy, where the King of Sardinia, Charles Albert, was still in arms. Radetsky, a veteran and able commander, was entrusted with this service, which he executed with remarkable ability. The forces of Sardinia, although united, to some extent, with those of Tuscany, Rome, and Naples, were unable to compete with the power brought against them, and by the middle of the year the Austrians were again in possession of all their old territory, with the exception of Venice.

Austria reduces Northern Italy.

The Venetians, under Manin, an incorruptible patriot, refused to submit, and sustained a siege, which lasted nearly a year, with indomitable courage and energy. At the end of that time they were obliged to yield, and again fell under the hated sway of the stranger.

Fall of Venice.

The Italian sovereigns now took heart, and one by one commenced the work of undoing what had been accomplished. The King of Naples, always foremost in treachery, stirred up

a riot among the lowest dregs of the people, and then, under the pretext of promoting order, massacred the citizens, and gained possession of the city. The constitution he had granted was immediately overthrown; and the ministers who, at his own request, had undertaken to conduct the government, were either cast into prison, or driven into exile. Sicily, after a long and brave resistance, was obliged to succumb before the Neapolitan army, and by the beginning of 1849, both kingdoms had returned to their accustomed servitude.

King of Naples restored.

Sicily was most cruelly treated. Messina was bombarded, and atrocities were committed both there and in Catania, which covered the King, under whose authority they were perpetrated, with shame and reproach. The *sobriquet* by which he was ever after known in Europe, that of *Bomba*, marked the contempt and execration with which he was universally regarded.

The Grand Duke of Tuscany, supported by Austrian troops, returned to Florence, and coolly violated every promise he had made in the hour of adversity; while Parma and Modena, under the same influence, were obliged to receive back their tyrants at the point of the bayonet.

In Rome, the liberalism of the Pope came to a termination with the death of Count Rossi, who was cruelly assassinated in November, 1848, by a lawless mob. The Pontiff now fled, and refusing to return, was deposed from his temporal sovereignty amid universal acclamation, and the Roman States were constituted into a republic.

Flight of the Pope.

Under the triumvirate that was appointed, of which Mazzini was chief, order was well maintained, and energetic measures were taken for the defence of the city. Public affairs went on as usual, and the republic would, without doubt, have been firmly established, but for the extraordinary conduct of the French Deputies, by whom it was determined, for political ends, that freedom in Rome should be put down, and the Pope re-established.

The Triumvirate.

In April, 1849, the French army landed at Civita Vecchia, and, finding the Romans unwilling to receive them, proceeded

Ch. 30 A. D. 1849. to besiege the city. Bravely was it defended, for above two months, by a very inferior force to that of the French, and it only fell at length before a power which it was utterly impossible permanently to resist.

The republican leaders instantly dispersed; and, as exiles in foreign lands, they have ever since been incessant conspirators. A free and united Italy is the one object of their passionate desire; and to accomplish this end, all means appear to them to be justifiable. The leader of the party, Joseph Mazzini, was originally a lawyer in Genoa, a man of great talents, and of great enthusiasm. As early as 1832 he began to plot for the overthrow of the Italian despots, and in 1833 very nearly succeeded in organizing an insurrection of the most formidable character. Its discovery led to the death of many who were engaged in it, and to the flight of Mazzini, who found a refuge in England, where he remained till the commotions of 1848 led to his return to Italy, from whence he was only driven by the entrance of the French army into Rome. Since then he has been unceasingly employed in keeping alive the insurrectionary spirit, and sometimes at the cost of valuable lives.

Party of Mazzini.

While Rome was free, and Italy still unsubdued, Charles Albert, acting probably under the pressure of the time, resolved to make one more effort to liberate Lombardy. But the attempt ended disastrously. Radetsky marched his army at once into Sardinia, and on the 25th of March, 1849, gained a decisive victory at Novara. The high-spirited king, who had staked everything on the battle, distinguished himself greatly by his gallantry on the field, and was heart-broken at the result. His immediate abdication followed, and soon after he retired to Portugal, and died.

Charles Albert defeated at Novara.

Germany by this time was effectually subdued before the great armies which were still at the disposal of the Emperor of Austria. In June, 1848, Prince Windischgrätz cannonaded Prague, and quickly restored Bohemia to obedience. The Austrian Emperor then returned to Vienna, and declared war

against Hungary. This step occasioned a violent outbreak in the capital. The Viennese flew to arms, formed barricades, gained the city, and organized a Provisional Government. For ten days the army of the Emperor was defied, but at the end of that time military power triumphed, and the soldiery took possession of the city. The leaders in the rebellion were immediately shot or hanged, and the imperial power was re-established.

Outbreak in Vienna.

The war with Hungary was now commenced in earnest, an army of 130,000 men, under the ablest generals of the empire, being despatched to subdue the kingdom. The contest was a terrific one. Kossuth, who had been appointed chief, displayed throughout the struggle the highest talent and wonderful perseverance. The Hungarians gained victory after victory, and by the spring of 1849 had succeeded in driving back the Austrian army, and asserting their independence. In this dilemma the Emperor sought and obtained the aid of Russia, and fresh troops now poured upon the devoted nation. For nearly four months longer the contest was prolonged by the Hungarians with a courage and determination which has never been surpassed and rarely equalled. At length further resistance became impracticable; in August, 1849, the army surrendered to the Russians, and the Hungarians, left to the tender mercies of Haynau, were exposed to every form of revengeful cruelty. Count Batthyani, one of the noblest of patriots, was shot, others were hanged, while Kossuth, Bem, and their associates sought, and, to the honour of the Porte, found a refuge in Turkey, in spite of the threats of Russia, who demanded that they should be given up.

The War in Hungary.

Submission of the Hungarians.

The Emperor of Austria, unable to cope with the difficulties of his situation, in December, 1848, abdicated in favour of his nephew, and Francis Joseph, the present monarch, then but eighteen years of age, succeeded to the throne.

The various rulers of the smaller States of Germany, following in the wake of Austria, now severally revoked the

Ch. 30 privileges they had been forced to yield, and again unscrupulously trampled on the liberties of their subjects.

A. D. 1849. Prussia, which for a time appeared likely to become the recognized head of a united Germany, failed to improve the opportunity, and allowed herself to be diverted from more important objects by a war with Denmark, in support of the pretensions of the duchies of Holstein and Schleswig, where, in consequence of the people being mainly Germans, a revolt had been got up in favour of union.

War with Denmark.

The Great Powers quickly interfered on behalf of Denmark, and an armistice followed. This enraged the populace of Berlin beyond measure, and serious disturbances took place both there and at Frankfort. Military power, however, quickly triumphed over this attempt on the part of the ultra-democrats to control the King, and in Prussia, as in other places, although the forms of constitutional government were preserved, matters gradually returned to the condition they were in before the outbreak in Paris. The Frankfort Parliament soon after expired from inanition; and Prussia and Austria, after approaching the very verge of hostilities, at length adjusted their disputes peaceably.

The Frankfort Parliament.

A desire for German unity, with Prussia as the head of the States, is, however, still largely indulged. It was this feeling which, more than any other, led to the formation, in the year 1831, of the great commercial league called the Zollverein. The professed object of the league was to promote freedom of trade among the German States, by abolishing duties; but the real intent was to further a closer political union. The jealousy of Austria is continually excited by these tendencies, inasmuch as the avowed object of the promoters of the change is to exalt Prussia at her expense.

German unity.

England and Belgium, strong in the possession of representative institutions adapted to the age, remained unmoved amid the turmoils of the year. A Chartist insurrection was, indeed, threatened in London when the news of the French

revolution first arrived, and the 10th of April, 1848, was fixed upon as the day when it was to break out. But the Government was prepared for the emergency. Tens of thousands of citizens enrolled themselves as special constables; and the enemies of order, instead of accomplishing the confusion they anticipated, were covered with well-deserved ridicule. Some of the leaders in the movement were soon after arrested, tried, and transported for life, and since then the peace of the country has been undisturbed by political agitators. Chartist movement.

A few months after this abortive attempt, Mr. Smith O'Brien, a man of good family, but vain and weak, endeavoured to excite a rebellion in Ireland, the conduct of which was as contemptible as the termination of it was speedy. Happily no lives were lost. Mr. O'Brien was arrested, tried for high treason, and sentenced to death. But mercy prevailed, and the foolish enthusiast was merely transported for life; a sentence which ultimately was diminished to penal expatriation for a few years. Irish disturbances.

The safety of England, during a crisis like that we have been describing, may well lead us adequately to appreciate institutions which have proved capable of withstanding so violent a storm. It should teach us that the highest security of a nation is not in its armies, however large or well-disciplined, but in the loyalty of its thoughtful men, and the sympathy of class with class; that true freedom exists by antagonism; that it is in the balance of contending forces, in the toleration of differences, and in the alternate rise and fall of parties, that liberty becomes strong and healthy; and, above all, that it is in popular Protestantism, involving as it does freedom of conscience, and the enjoyment of unshackled religious opinion, will be found the best preparation for the possession of civil rights, and the surest guarantee for their legitimate exercise. Safety of England.

CHAPTER XXXI.

EUROPE, FROM THE RISE OF LOUIS NAPOLEON TO THE PEACE OF VILLAFRANCA.

Ch. 31 A. D. 1849. THE election of Louis Napoleon to the Presidency of the French Republic, notwithstanding the immense majority of votes in his favor, was far from appeasing the spirit of party which raged throughout the nation. Scarcely had the result of the appeal that had been made to the people been announced, when plotting commenced. Early in 1849 the Assembly was dissolved, and a new election took place, which resulted rather in a balance of parties than in the predominance of any one political element, although most of the leading democrats were amongst the excluded. This circumstance excited the rage of the clubs, and plans were forthwith put in motion for an insurrection. An attempt of this character, under the direction of Ledru Rollin, was made on the 13th of June, but was instantly suppressed; and a similar revolt in Lyons, on the day following, was at once put down by artillery, yet not without the sacrifice of a great number of lives.

The French Presidency.

These events greatly strengthened the position of the President, whose dependence from the first had been placed rather on the troops than on any party, and he now defied the Assembly, by electing a ministry altogether irrespective of them or their debates. From that hour parliamentary government was at an end; all real power was vested in one man; the Assembly coalesced, and protested, and became violent, but gained nothing; while the President day by day strength-

Power of Louis Napoleon.

ened the army, and sought to ally its interests firmly with his own—an object which he before long fully accomplished, and with consummate skill. The death of Louis Philippe, which took place at Claremont on the 26th of August, 1850, excited little notice, either in France or elsewhere. The Citizen King and his dynasty had already passed away.

Ch. 31 A. D. 1850.

England. ENGLAND, during this time, had been gradually recovering from the commercial difficulties occasioned by the troubles of 1848; the Continent was gradually settling into repose; the discovery of gold, first in California and subsequently in Australia, was accelerating colonization at a rate hitherto unknown; and peace congresses were holding in Paris and Frankfort for the purpose of uniting the nations in a bond of everlasting brotherhood.

Death of Sir Robert Peel. The sudden death of Sir Robert Peel, which took place on the 1st of July, 1850, in consequence of the injuries he received through a fall from his horse, occasioned universal grief, all parties concurring in the eloquent tribute of Mr. Gladstone, when he spoke of him as having died prematurely, though full of years, since it had been fondly hoped that whatever position Providence might assign him, he might still have been spared to render service to his country by the weight of his abilities, the splendor of his talents, and the purity of his virtues.

Papal usurpation. The Papal usurpation—an attempt made by the Pope and Cardinal Wiseman in the year 1850 to divide England into dioceses, and to give to Romish bishops titles derived from English sees—excited the indignation of all classes, and led to the passing of a bill forbidding such titles as illegal. About the same time the election of Baron Rothschild, as member of Parliament for the City of London, revived the question of Jewish disabilities, and finally brought about the complete removal of all obstacles to the admission of Jews to a seat in the legislature.

The event of the year 1851 was the holding of the first great Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations, which took

Ch. 31 place in Hyde Park. As early as July, 1849, Prince Albert, acting for the Society of Arts, had applied to the Government A. D. 1851. for the appointment of a Royal Commission to manage such an undertaking; and on the 3rd of January, 1850, the Gazette announced the appointments that had been made.

The building, in which the Exhibition was held, was of a character quite distinct from that of any existing edifice, being chiefly composed of glass and iron. It covered nearly nineteen acres of ground, and the area of the floor comprised 772,784 square feet, being about seven times as much as that on which St. Paul's Cathedral stands. The number of exhibitors was 15,000. Of the official shilling catalogue alone, 300,000 were sold in English; 10,000 in French; and 5,000 in German. The number of visitors, during the twenty-three weeks the Exhibition was open, was above six millions. At two o'clock on the 7th of October, 1851, 93,000 persons were estimated to have been within the edifice at one time, a sight never witnessed in any other age or country. The receipts at the doors amounted to £364,758.

The building.

The opening, which took place on the 1st of May, 1851, was a most imposing spectacle. The Queen performed the ceremony in person. The lines of carriages, the congregated crowds, the inner significance of the outward scene, the thoughts suggested, and the feelings excited—*all* tended to fill the mind of the spectator with awe and with delight. The procession, as it approached the Queen to present the address of the Commissioners, was seen to be headed by the Prince Consort, who was accompanied by the foreign representatives of twenty-six different nations, all uniting in the expression of a common hope that the proceedings of that day might "strengthen the bonds of peace and friendship among all the nations of the earth." No accident of any kind occurred; and no case either of quarrel or of robbery disturbed the harmony of the scene. The immense crowd retired in gladness, and gratitude and hope mingled in the hearts of many who looked upon what they had witnessed as typical of a coming time

The opening.

when swords should be beaten into ploughshares, and men learn war no more. Since then, similar exhibitions, although on a smaller scale, have been held in Paris, Dublin, New York, and Manchester; and the temporary building in Hyde Park has found a rival, both for size and beauty, in a new palace of glass and iron, opened at Sydenham on the 10th of June, 1854.

Regarding the Exhibition as a result of the accumulated industry and scientific progress of the preceding twenty or thirty years, it may not be unsuitable to refer here to some of the discoveries that properly belong to the period we are describing. The vast increase of steam power in manufactures, in navigation, and in locomotion by land, naturally comes first under notice. Into the history of the steam engine,—its invention, its improvement by Watt, or its application to various useful purposes,—it is not our purpose to enter. It must suffice to say, that every succeeding year bears witness to new applications of this wondrous agent; so that there is now scarcely a trade or process of any importance to which it has not been made tributary. Mills of all kinds, printing presses, gigantic hammers, ploughs, reaping machines, and industrial appliances of all kinds, testify to the services rendered to mankind by the new power.

Scientific progress.

Steam-boats were in use as early as 1807; and the next thirty years records the history of their gradual improvement, and extensive adoption on rivers and in coasting expeditions. But about 1838 a great advance took place. In that year the Great Western crossed the Atlantic; and since then the development of steam navigation has been unceasing,—the last and crowning triumph being the launch of the Great Eastern, "the most gigantic example yet furnished of naval engineering, and destined to give the latest response to three great problems, viz.—What is the *form* of ship that will pass most rapidly through the water? what is the *size* of ship that can be worked most profitably by steam in long oceanic voyages? and what is the *construction* of ship that will give the most

Steam ships.

Ch. 31 strength with a definite quantity of material?" The hull of
A. D. 1851. the Great Eastern is built entirely of iron, and is 680 feet in length, 83 feet in breadth, and 60 feet in height from keel to deck. She is six times the size of the largest line-of-battle ship; her length is more than three times that of the height of the Monument; her breadth is equal to the width of Pall Mall; and a promenade round the deck involves a walk of more than a quarter of a mile. She is to have ten boilers, five funnels 100 feet high, and 112 furnaces. She is to afford accommodation for 4,000 passengers, and could be made to convey 10,000 troops; her tonnage is 22,500 tons; and the power of her paddle and screw engines, united, that of 2,600 horses, to which may be added 6,500 square yards of canvas. The vessel, after many fruitless efforts, was happily launched on the 31st of January, 1858, and her completion was celebrated by a banquet on the 8th of August, 1859. Time alone will prove to what extent this vast undertaking, in which above a million of money has been sunk, may be regarded as a success. "A ship," it has been well said, "that could take out guests enough to people a small town, goods enough to supply all the shops in that town, and coals enough to serve the town with fuel for three or four years, *ought* to have a mighty future before it."

The Great Eastern.

The first locomotive that was found fully to answer the purpose of conveying passengers and goods by rail, and so to supersede at once stage coaches and all conveyance by ordinary roads, was that of Mr. Robert Stephenson, which was invented in 1829, and brought into use on the line opened between Manchester and Liverpool on the 15th of September, 1830, an event long remembered in connection with the lamented death of Mr. Huskisson, which accidentally took place on that occasion. Since then steam carriages have been universally adopted; and now not England only, but the whole civilized globe, is connected by a network of lines on which passengers are travelling, both by day and night, at rates varying from twenty-five to sixty miles an hour. The effects

Locomotive engines.

of this great change have not yet fully developed themselves. Its first consequence has been to *centralize* influence, whether physical or intellectual. England has become one huge metropolis, and Europe one vast empire. What the result will be in case of war,—whether, as is supposed, railway communication will on the whole favor the *defence* of nations,— what political changes will follow from the increasing importance thus given to large towns,—and what other consequences, yet unforeseen, may be involved in this levelling of mountains and raising of valleys, none can tell; but that they will, before long, be many and great, is evident enough to every thoughtful observer. The mania for speculation, to which the introduction of railroads gave rise, has already been noticed.

Railways.

The invention of the electric telegraph, and its application to the purposes of communication, is another of those wonderful discoveries, the importance of which it seems impossible to overrate. In the year 1839, the labors of Professor Wheatstone, Mr. Morse, and others, had demonstrated, both in England and America, the practicability of transmitting messages by the electric wire; and since then, chiefly through companies formed for the purpose, these communications have been so extended, that now the world itself is but one great community, over which intelligence passes as rapidly and as easily as through the streets of a single town.

Electric telegraph.

Even the ocean is no obstacle, submarine telegraphs being now common; and although communication by the magic wire is at present suspended between England and America, the fact, that messages have actually been exchanged betwixt London and New York, affords in itself an adequate guarantee that before long this great enterprise will be successfully completed. The first line of American electric telegraph was not constructed till 1844. It extended only from Washington to Baltimore, a distance of about 40 miles; and now probably 20,000 miles of wire stretch across the swamps and forests, the rivers and mountains, of that vast empire, all the members of which, without fatigue, and at a very small expense,

Submarine communication.

Ch. 31 A. D. 1851.

can thus, in a few minutes of time, hold silent converse, and exchange tokens of interest or affection.

The fact of the discovery of gold both in California and in Australia has already been referred to; the changes that were almost immediately wrought on society by this unexpected influx of wealth must now be briefly noticed. Previous to the event in question, gold was chiefly obtained from Siberia, Hungary, Transylvania, and Brazil, the average annual produce being about five millions. In four years after the new discovery, the supply was more than trebled. The wonders of California were brought to light in 1847, and crowds instantly rushed thither, eager for gain. "Ships arrived by hundreds, and stores and warehouses rose as if by magic. Flour for a time got up to six shillings a pound, and gold to the value of seven pounds sterling was, in some instances, given for a pair of common shoes." In four years and a half, the gold that had been dug and worked in California alone, represented a value of thirty-five millions, an amount exceeding the produce of the whole known world previous to 1847. In that year the European population of the state was scarcely 2,000, and in 1856 it had risen to 560,000.

Gold in California.

In the year 1850 gold was discovered at Sydney; and in May, 1851, a proclamation was issued by the Government, claiming the precious metals in Bathurst, and offering licenses to search for it. The rush was so great, that only a few weeks afterwards twenty thousand persons were at the diggings; and by May, 1852, gold to the value of nearly a million and a half had been shipped for England.

In Sydney.

The first official announcement of gold in Victoria was made by Governor Latrobe in 1851, and by the end of the year it was arriving at Melbourne at the rate of two tons a week. At first great embarrassment was caused by these discoveries. Of fifty-nine ships in the harbor of Melbourne in the year 1852, more than one-half lost their crews, the men in some instances gaining enormous sums. The ordinary course of industry was thoroughly disturbed, and a gambling

In Victoria.

spirit pervaded the entire community. Since then things have found their level. The population has increased prodigiously; the yield of gold has steadily augmented; and the means of obtaining it have been to a great extent systematized. Melbourne and Geelong have become large and beautiful cities; and trade with the Australian colonies is now an important element in the prosperity of England. Ch. 31 A. D. 1851.

What the commercial and social effects of these discoveries will eventually be, time only can disclose. Prices generally may be expected to rise year by year, and the value of annuities *may* in this way be gradually depreciated. Free trade and advancing science will certainly lead to increase of production, and so partly restore the balance, but it is difficult to see how inconvenience can be altogether avoided. The *immediate* effect has certainly been beneficial to all classes. Wages have advanced; exports and imports have enormously increased; and both misery and crime have been diminished. In Ireland the improvement has been most rapid; and although other causes have contributed to the result, there can be no question that the enlargement of the currency, consequent on the arrival of gold, has done much to promote the general comfort and prosperity. Its probable effects.

But we must turn back to the Continent.

The year 1851 disclosed to the French nation the extent of the power they had allowed to centre in the Prince President, and witnessed the final triumph of his plans for the attainment of absolute rule. State of France.

On the 26th of November, the Assembly, under the influence of despair, secretly resolved to denounce the President, and to declare his powers terminated; and on the same day the leading officers of the army (with the exception of Generals Cavaignac, Lamoricière, and Changarnier), privately pledged each other to support him. The question to be decided was, who could first successfully accomplish a *Coup d'Etat*, which all parties now saw was inevitable?

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The President was the victor. On the evening of the 1st of December, 1851, the Prince was doing the honors at the Elysée, as calm and as affable as usual. But scarcely had the company retired, before the measures on which he had decided were carried into execution. By two o'clock in the morning all the leaders of the parties who had coalesced against him were in prison. Along with these, the chiefs of the clubs and secret societies of Paris were also secured; and the first thing that met the eye of the Parisians on the morning of the 2nd was a proclamation placarded on the walls, and signed by Louis Napoleon, to the effect that the Assembly was dissolved, and universal suffrage established. Paris was now declared in a state of siege, and the President formally announced his determination to close the era of revolutions.

The Coup d'Etat.

The real struggle took place on the 4th, barricades having been erected during the night of the 3rd in the most crowded quarters of the city. The troops, faithful to Louis Napoleon, at once advanced on the insurgents, carried the barricades by storm, fired volleys on every house from which a shot issued, and, regardless alike of their own lives, and those of their opponents, speedily put an end to the insurrection. On the 1st of January, 1852, Louis was elected President for ten years by the votes of above seven millions of the people; and a few days afterwards, eighty-three members of the late Assembly were banished from France, and about six hundred of the disaffected were shipped to Cayenne. The next step was not long delayed. On the 2nd of December, 1852, the President assumed the title of Emperor of the French. A fresh appeal to the people speedily confirmed the proceeding; and the Empire, thus restored, has ever since been gradually strengthening in the hands of its astute head.

Its consequences.

On the 30th January, 1853, the Emperor was married, in the Cathedral of Notre Dame, to Mademoiselle de Montijo, Duchess of Teba, a union which has proved every way favorable to his domestic happiness, and been crowned by the birth of a son, which took place on the 16th of March, 1856.

Marriage of the Emperor.

In April, 1855, the Emperor and Empress visited the Queen of England, and were enthusiastically received. On the 30th of September following, the Queen and Prince Albert paid a return visit to Paris, and the alliance of the two nations, notwithstanding many jealousies, has as yet happily been undisturbed.

English affairs to the close of 1851 have already been noticed.

Eng-land.

Early in 1852, in consequence of a misunderstanding between Lord John Russell, then Premier, and Lord Palmerston, the Secretary for Foreign Affairs, the latter retired from office, and the Russell ministry shortly afterwards broke up. The Earl of Derby was then commanded to form a government; but he, too, failed to organize a stable administration, and after a few months was succeeded by the Earl of Aberdeen, as the head of a coalition ministry.

Bur-mese war.

During this year (1852) a second rupture took place with the Burmese, in consequence of the cruel and oppressive treatment of British subjects by that barbaric government. An expedition for the chastisement of the wrong doer sailed to the Irrawady on the 28th of March; and on the 13th of April, Rangoon, although defended by 10,000 men and 100 pieces of artillery, fell under an assault of the British. The capture of the towns of Prome and of Pegu quickly followed; and shortly after, the province of Pegu was declared to be an integral portion of the British territories in the East.

Death of the Duke of Wel-lington.

On the 18th of September the Duke of Wellington, full of years and of honors, breathed his last. His funeral, which took place on the 18th of November, was one of the most striking scenes ever witnessed. The crowd of spectators was immense. Order was admirably preserved. Above a million of spectators lined the streets, and two hundred thousand paid high prices for admission to the windows of houses by which the procession passed. The interior of the cathedral, where the interment took place, was hung with black, and magnificently lighted. Eighteen thousand persons were accommodated with seats in the form of an amphitheatre, and when the

Ch. 31 vast procession, which had extended two miles, arrived, a solemn anthem was sung, in which, with voices broken by emotion, the great multitude solemnly joined. Foreign princes and marshals stood at the head of the coffin; Prince Albert and the English generals, who had borne the pall, were at its foot, when amid the tears of the nation, and the profound respect of the highest and noblest of the land, the body of the departed hero was silently lowered to its final resting-place.

A. D. 1852.

The funeral.

It is impossible to give, *briefly*, any fair, or full delineation of the character of the Duke of Wellington, for it was at once great and many sided. Only one or two leading features can be noticed. Speaking of him generally, he may be described, in the words of a French writer, as "a brave soldier, a modest hero, a sincere friend to the laws and liberties of his country, and a respectful and faithful subject to his sovereign." Viewing him more closely, he is seen to be calm, firm, and of inflexible integrity; distinguished through life by a rare love of truth, and a profound contempt for all falsehood and pretence. Duty was his constant watchword, and whenever or wherever it called, he implicitly obeyed, and was always ready. "His system as a general," says Napier, "was that of all great commanders. He kept his army well in hand, taking care that it should be always ready to march or fight; and he assumed either the offensive or the defensive according to circumstances, displaying in both cases a superior and masterly intellect. Some days it was fortune that helped him, and on other days it was his natural genius; but the greater part of his triumphs must be set down to the account of his indomitable activity, for he was a hard worker, in the strongest sense of the term." His stern severity in repressing pillage, and all excess, obtained for him the name of the Iron Duke; but no one could have taken more care of his soldiers, and he was habitually considerate and kind-hearted. Distinguished for nobleness of aim and oneness of purpose, "disinterested devotion to duty," it has been well said, "made his eye clear,

Character of the Duke.

his hand steady, and his heart calm. It saved him from the restless perturbations of vanity, the blindness and blunderings of self-love, the precipitancies of moral cowardice, and the rashness of the man who cannot afford to wait." His life was a valuable lesson to his countrymen, and his death was universally deplored as a public calamity. Ch. 31 A. D. 1854.

Scarcely had the great commander been laid in his grave, when rumours of approaching war began once more to trouble Europe. Russia, bent on the ruin of Turkey, had again made demands on the Porte, and invaded the Danubian Principalities. The Western Powers had taken alarm at these continual encroachments, and France and England, after a peace of forty years, were preparing to act in unison against the Czar. Russia and Turkey.

Events ripened fast. On the 2nd of July, 1853, the Russian armies crossed the Pruth; on the 27th of September the Porte declared war against Russia; on the 30th of November general indignation was excited throughout Europe by the destruction of the Turkish fleet at Sinope, under circumstances which gave to the transaction the character of a massacre; and on the 28th of March, 1854, war was declared. Sinope.

The Russian navy having retired under the walls of Cronstadt and Sebastopol as soon as the combined fleets entered the Black Sea, no naval conflict took place. Odessa was bombarded on the 21st of April, but without much result; Sebastopol was blockaded; and the strong fortress of Bomarsund was captured. The Turks fought bravely on the Danube, and at the siege of Silistria repulsed the Russians with great loss.

In the meantime large armies were assembled at Gallipoli and Scutari, and vast preparations made for the coming conflict. On the 18th of May a council of war was held, and on the 29th the greater portion of the French and English troops disembarked at Varna. Here cholera, in its most frightful forms, attacked the men, and produced an amount of suffering and of loss which it is painful to contemplate. On the 3rd of Preparations for conflict.

Ch. 31 September the final order was given to embark, and on the
A. D. 14th and two following days the troops were safely landed at
1854. Old Fort, about thirty miles from Sebastopol. On the 20th the two armies marched towards the Alma, where the Russians were posted in great force, and in a position regarded by themselves as unassailable. The work to be accomplished was an arduous one. "The passage of the river was to be effected by an army whose line extended for three miles, in the face of batteries and artillery, and dense masses of infantry covering the hills." Every difficulty, however, quickly vanished before the courage and enthusiasm of the soldiers. The English faced the tremendous batteries, and, amid crashing volleys of grape and musketry, carried everything before them by the unfailing bayonet. The French scaled the ravines, springing from crag to crag with wonderful rapidity, and by evening everything was won. The victory was immediately followed by a night march to the south of Sebastopol, where the port of Balaclava was secured. The troops were now only nine miles from Sebastopol, and the allied fleets were in the offing; but new difficulties presented themselves. Seven Russian ships of war, sunk at the mouth of the harbour, rendered entrance impossible, and cholera again began to accomplish its deadly work.

Battle of the Alma.

The siege commenced on the 17th of October, but proceeded slowly. On the 25th the conflict at Balaclava took place, ever memorable for a charge made, under a misconception of orders, by a body of cavalry, numbering about 600 men, on the entire Russian army supported by artillery. The result was at once glorious and disastrous. Prodigies of valour were performed, but impossibilities rendered all such efforts vain. Of the 607 who went into action, only 198 returned.

Charge at Balaclava.

The next great fight was on the 5th of November, at Inkermann, where, for three hours, in the darkness of a cold and wet morning, 8,000 English soldiers, many of whom had been all the night in the trenches, withstood successfully 45,000 Russians. The battle was not one of strategy. It has been

well described as "the soldiers' battle." It was simply "a series of dreadful deeds of daring, of sanguinary hand to hand fights, of despairing rallies, of desperate assaults—in glens and valleys, in brushwood glades, and remote dells." The English were well supported, as soon as the attack was known, by the French, under General Bosquet, and the Russians were obliged to retreat, leaving at least five thousand men dead upon the field. The loss of the British was severe; 462 were killed, and 1,952 wounded, among whom were 42 officers dead, and 103 wounded. Sir George Cathcart, Brigadier-General Strangways, and Brigadier-General Goldie, fell on this occasion, at the head of their regiments.

Battle of Inkermann.

On the 14th the great hurricane occurred. "The camp was one wide scene of desolation; the roads became impassable; the men were exposed to the bitterest cold, and the driving rain and sleet: even the wounded were deprived of their frail shelter. At night there came on a snow storm, and amidst this conflict of the elements a cannonade and sortie from the Russians. The destruction at sea was terrific; eleven transports were wrecked off Balaclava. The steamship Prince, a magnificent vessel of 2,700 tons, full of the most valuable stores, went to pieces on the rocks. A few days before, she had landed troops; but the loss of her entire cargo, consisting of winter clothing for 40,000 men, shot and shell, and those medical stores which were an absolute necessity, grievously increased the calamities of this fatal season."

The hurricane.

The sufferings of that winter will never be forgotten. The siege made little progress; the army was without shelter and clothing; the sick and wounded were perishing for want of timely aid. England was filled with grief and indignation. A parliamentary investigation was called for, and every effort was made, both by the Government and by voluntary subscriptions, to alleviate the sufferings of our brave countrymen.

Winter in the Crimea.

The Russians, meanwhile, were gradually strengthening their position. By March (1855), the struggle, which had never ceased, began to assume a new form. Night battles, of

Ch. 81 more or less importance, multiplied; the siege works of the
A. D. Allies drew nearer and nearer to the Russian lines; and on
1855. the 9th of April the second bombardment of Sebastopol commenced. A railway was now laid from Balaclava to the camp, and stores of all kinds arrived rapidly. In May, the Sardinian contingent landed. The supplies that reached the Russians by the Sea of Azoff were cut off by a successful operation of the fleet; and on the 6th of June a third great effort was made by the allies. The battle of the Quarries, as it was termed, ended in the capture of the Mamelon; and on the 17th and 18th further assaults took place, but still without success. Ten days afterwards Lord Raglan died, universally
Fall of Sebastopol. regretted. On the 16th of August the battle of the Tchernaya was fought and won; on the 5th of September the last great cannonade commenced; and on the 8th the Malakoff and the Great Redan fell into the hands of the Allies. Sebastopol was immediately shrouded in flame by the Russians; its great works were effectually destroyed; its entire fleet was sunk; the enemy evacuated the place, and the English and French troops took possession of it. The bombardment of Sweaborg, the capture of Kinburn, and the battle of Kars, where the Turks, under the guidance of English officers, performed wonders, closed the campaign of 1855. The Czar Nicholas had died on the 2nd of March; but his son and successor, Alexander II., the present Emperor, showed little immediate disposition to favor any change of policy.

No movement of importance took place on the part of the Allies after the destruction of the sea works of Sebastopol, and the division of the booty, which included 3,800 cannon, and half a million of shot and shells. Negotiations for peace soon
Treaty of peace. after commenced; and on the 30th of March, 1856, a treaty was signed, which led to the immediate withdrawal of the troops, whose last work was the erection of simple memorials to the dead. The spots where these white stones stand, mark the burying-places of the departed, and have ever since been sacredly respected by the Russians.

Ch. 31 A. D. 1856.

The Crimean war proved fatal to the Aberdeen ministry. On the 29th of January, 1855, it fell to pieces, and Lord Palmerston soon after accepted office. This position he retained till February, 1858, when, in consequence of an adverse vote of the House of Commons on the bill relating to "Conspiracy for Murder," the Whig minister resigned, and Lord Derby once more became Premier. The new administration did not, however, last much more than a year. In the month of June, 1859, Lord Palmerston returned to power, and still conducts the government of the country.

India, after the peace of 1849, commenced a new phase in its existence. Hitherto wars, necessary indeed, but costly and destructive, had prevented the Government from giving that attention to internal improvements, and the development of the resources of the country, which had long been felt needful. But now, under Lord Dalhousie, who felt a deep interest in the welfare of the people, progress in this direction became practicable. Canals were dug; roads formed or restored; surveys for railways extensively undertaken; and the great trunk road from Calcutta to Delhi and Lahore was constructed, over the first hundred miles of which a railway has since been laid. The electric telegraph, which at present extends over 4,000 miles, was about this time introduced; and a noble pier and harbour, at the mouth of the Indus, opened the trade of that great and important river.

Railways in India.

In February, 1856, the annexation of Oude was accomplished, by which 25,000 square miles of territory and five millions of people were brought under British rule. Upwards of seventy thousand of the Sepoys in the English service had been drawn from these territories, where the landowners, like the military chiefs of old, dwelt in fortified castles, defended by artillery. The act of annexation has been much blamed as tyrannical and unjust. The defence of it is to be found in the horrible atrocities which were committed by the native government. Immediately after this settlement of the affairs

Annexation of Oude.

Ch. 31 of Oude, Lord Dalhousie resigned his appointment, and Lord Canning came out as his successor.

A. D. 1857. On the 1st of November (1856), war was declared against Persia, in consequence of the Shah having, contrary to treaty, beseiged Herat. Troops were immediately forwarded from Bombay, and, by the 10th of December, Bushire was captured. In the month of January following (1857), General Outram, who had been appointed Commander-in-Chief, arrived with additional forces, and prepared to carry on the war with vigor. But hostilities were not prolonged. A treaty of peace was signed at Paris in March, and by the 5th of April, the war was at an end.

War in Persia.

We must now briefly recount the sad story of the fearful mutiny of the Bengal army, which soon after followed, and, for a time, greatly endangered the empire of India.

Early in the year 1857 ill-feeling had been more than once manifested by the native troops. The *pretext* for the discontent was, that some rifle cartridges, which had been sent from England in 1856, were made up with paper greased by a mixture of cow's fat and hog's lard. By this agency it was pretended their caste was to be destroyed and their religion overthrown. The *true grievance* has never been satisfactorily ascertained, but there is little reason to doubt that many things combined to bring about the catastrophe. "The predisposing causes," it has been well remarked, "belong partly to the constitution of the Bengal army, and partly to the progress of events which foreshadowed the introduction of a new era. From the abolition of Suttee, to the exemption of native christian converts from the forfeiture of their rights of inheritance, and the permission to Hindoo widows to remarry,—from the formation of the first metalled road to cover India with a network of railroads and electric telegraphs,—there is not a single good measure which has not contributed something to impress the military priests with the conviction that, if they were to make a stand, they must do so soon, else

Pretexts and true grievances.

the opportunity would pass away for ever." The time for the revolt was well chosen. Ch. 31 A. D. 1857.

The strength of the European element in the army, owing to the unbounded confidence reposed in the Sepoy, had gradually been reduced to a point far below that to which it ought ever to have arrived. At the time of the outbreak the number of native troops employed in the three presidencies was nearly 300,000; while the total number of European troops was under 43,500, and of these 5,200 were in Persia. When to this grievous inequality in numbers is added the consideration that in the Bengal army a large proportion of the men were natives of Oude, sympathizing with the degraded landowners, and a still larger proportion Brahmins of high class, ever ready to take offence, it will readily be seen that great perils must for many years have been hanging over India. The wars with Persia and China no doubt precipitated the crisis. European strength.

The first sign of the coming storm occurred at Meerut, a military station about thirty-eight miles from Delhi, where 2,700 native troops, and 1,700 Europeans, were then placed. Here, on Sunday evening, the 10th of March, while the Europeans were mostly at church, the mutiny broke out. It took all parties by surprise. Before any effective measures could be taken, many of the European officers were shot, the cantonments were fired, the gaol was broken open, and men, women, and children were indiscriminately massacred. By the time the European forces could be assembled, the rebels were on their way to Delhi. Outbreak at Meerut.

Early on the morning of the 11th the mutineers appeared before the ancient capital of the Moguls, and, as if they had been expected, were immediately admitted to the palace by the aged monarch, and joined by the native troops.

The work of murder, as at Meerut, went on rapidly. One by one the European residents, among whom were several ladies, suffered death, sometimes, it is to be feared, under circumstances of aggravated cruelty. No resistance could be

Ch. 31 offered. With the exception of two officers of artillery and three or four men, who had charge of the magazine, there was not a single European soldier within the walls of Delhi. Nor were matters much better in the cantonments; for while 3,000 native troops were there under arms, only forty-three were English, and these were officers. Deserted by the men they had commanded, those who escaped death fled to the neighboring stations. Lieutenant Willoughby, who had long kept the mutineers from the magazine by vollies of grape-shot, finding further resistance impracticable, at length fired the train he had gallantly laid for its destruction, and in the confusion occasioned by the explosion, which destroyed hundreds of Sepoys, was supposed to have escaped: he was, however, never heard of, and probably perished near the walls.

A. D. 1857.

Seizure of Delhi.

The electric telegraph flashed the dismal intelligence from town to town, and from station to station, and everywhere preparations were made for the worst. At Meer 4,000 Sepoys were successfully compelled by 1,300 European soldiers to pile their arms, and to retire. At Ferozepoor a similar movement was successfully accomplished, and the magazine, which was then full of military stores, and of great value, was saved. At Peshawur, Umballa, and other places, mutinous tendencies were also put down in consequence of the information transmitted, and the priceless value of the electric wire was everywhere recognized.

Safety of the Punjaub.

The Punjaub was now safe; and Sir John Lawrence, with other officers, devoted themselves with indefatigable energy to the raising of fresh troops, which could be employed in retaking Delhi; the forces in Persia were recalled; and reinforcements from every possible quarter were urgently demanded.

The available army, although scarcely numbering more than 3,000 Europeans, was immediately pushed towards Delhi, and, after one or two conflicts with large bodies of the mutineers, occupied the cantonments in its front.

The mutiny at Lucknow broke out on the 30th of May,

when several officers were shot, and their bungalows were set on fire. The outbreak was temporarily suppressed, and the time thus gained was instantly improved by the removal to the Residency,—around which lines of defence were constructed,—of all the guns, shot, shell, and stores, that could be collected. Large bodies of the mutineers now approached the city, and the attack on the Residency, the heroic defence of which soon became famous throughout Europe, commenced. Into the details of that long and frightful siege, deeply interesting as they are, it is not possible here to enter. The courage and patient endurance of the garrison, civilians as well as military, were beyond all praise; and the skill and resolution with which the defence was conducted, first by Sir Henry Lawrence, and after his death by Col. Inglis, reflected the highest credit on the military capacity of both these great men.

Mutiny at Lucknow.

The march of General Havelock and his devoted followers, as they gallantly fought their way to the succour of their countrymen, was one continued act of heroism. In nine days, under the pressure of intense heat and exhausting fatigue, that gallant band won four great battles, and captured more than forty guns. For a time, however, every effort seemed unavailing. The rainy season set in; cholera decimated the troops; and the mutineers by tens of thousands hung around them. At length, success crowned their efforts. On the 25th of September the Residency was reached, and the garrison were saved. It was not, however, till Havelock and Outram were in turn relieved by Sir Colin Campbell, on the 17th November, that the women and children, the sick and the wounded, could be removed to Alhahabad. Four days after, on the 21st of November, the brave and beloved Havelock sank, under an attack of dysentery. General Outram,—whose generosity in resigning the command to Havelock, deserves memorial,—happily survived, to receive in person from his countrymen the honors and the regard he had so richly earned.

March of Havelock.

While the siege of Lucknow was going on, the news of other mutinies and further massacres from time to time sad-

Ch. 31 dened all hearts. But every other calamity sank into insig-
A. D. ficance when compared with the atrocities of Nana Sahib at
1857. Cawnpore. On the 5th of June the mutiny broke out there, and Sir Hugh Wheeler, the commander of the troops, with the other European residents and their families, entrenched themselves for defence in the barrack-hospital. Here they resisted all attacks till the 20th, when Sir Hugh was killed.

Massacre at Cawnpore. On the 26th, being without either water or food, the garrison entered into a treaty with the Nana, who undertook to convey them to Allahabad in forty boats. Scarcely, however, had the fugitives reached the middle of the river, when vollies of grape-shot were poured upon them. Most of the party were killed, the rest returned as prisoners. All the males were then murdered; the women and children were for the time reserved; but it was only to be subsequently sacrificed with still greater brutality. On the 18th of July these poor victims were all slaughtered by their enraged captor, and their mangled bodies were flung into a deep well near the spot where the crime was perpetrated.

The feelings excited in England by the news of this deplorable event cannot be described; one cry of execration, mingled with threats of vengeance, rose instinctively in every part of the land; and it was not till Christianity had lifted up her voice on behalf of mercy, that *indiscriminate* wrath gave way to temperate resolves that *justice* should be done even to the Sepoy.

The army before the walls of Delhi, during all this time, retained its position, and waited for reinforcements. The mutineers, during the same period, also received great acces-

Siege of Delhi. sions. By the 14th of September every preparation had been made for the assault, and after a series of bloody conflicts, which lasted seven days, the British ensign again waved over the city. The king's son and grandson, both of whom had participated in the massacre of the Europeans, were taken and shot, and their bodies exposed to the people. The old monarch was detained as a prisoner.

After this conquest, the mutiny was in fact at an end. Gwalior had been captured on the 19th of June by Sir Hugh Rose, and on the 23rd the city and fort of Calpee had also fallen. The rebel army now broke up into fragments, and was gradually crushed in detail by the English power.

Government of India.

On the 2nd of August, 1858, by an act of the Imperial Parliament, the entire administration of the British empire in India was transferred to the Queen, and the power of the Company passed away. The government of India will henceforth, therefore, be under the administration of Her Majesty's ministers, the office of President of the Board of Control being superseded by that of a Secretary of State for India.

War in China.

In CHINA, at the close of 1856, fresh troubles arose, and hostilities were renewed, in consequence of the seizure by the Chinese authorities of a small trading vessel which was under the British flag. The viceroy of Canton refusing to hold personal communication on the subject with the British admiral, the city was attacked on the 24th of October, and about a week afterwards was bombarded by the British fleet. Things remaining unsettled, a second bombardment took place on the 28th December, 1857, when the city was taken, Commissioner Yeh made prisoner, and the governor directed to continue in the discharge of his office under the direction and control of the British authorities. On the 26th of May the treaty of Tien-tsin, negotiated by Lord Elgin, was signed, the fulfilment of which has since been evaded, and led to another war, now in progress. A treaty with Japan, also negotiated by Lord Elgin, was signed at Jeddo on the 26th August (1858), and it may be hoped this new opening will prove commercially advantageous to both countries.

The last and only great event which now remains to be noticed is the Italian war. In order to understand the causes and bearings of this contest, it will be necessary to notice some of the circumstances that preceded and occasioned it.

The return of the Austrians to Italy, after the suppression of the revolutions of 1848 and 1849, was marked by a deter-

Ch. 31 mination to extinguish the national spirit, and to make Lombardy and Venetia as German as possible. A proposal to include the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom in the German Confederation, made in the year 1851, was protested against both by France and England, but in vain, and during the greater part of this year, Lombardy and Venetia were in a state of siege. In 1852 a treaty was entered into between Austria and the Pope, by which the Emperor agreed to furnish troops when required for the defence of the Papal territory; and on the 18th of August, 1855, a concordat between Austria and the Court of Rome was signed, by the articles of which many of the rights and privileges of the empire were transferred to the Pope, all previous arrangements in opposition thereto abrogated, and the concordat made a part of the law of the land. The discontent of Italy was intense, and manifested itself in insurrections, which issued, as usual, only in executions and confiscations.

A. D. 1858.

Discontent in Italy.

So matters remained till the conclusion of the Crimean war. At that time conferences were held in Paris relative to a settlement with Russia, in which Sardinia participated. At these conferences a "note" was addressed to the French and English Governments by Count Cavour, the minister of Victor Emmanuel, on the miserable state of Italy, complaining that the prisons were full, that exiles were yearly multiplying, and that martial law alone kept down the people. No decided steps, however, were taken by the assembled Powers to remedy the evil.

Count Cavour.

On the 14th of January, 1858, Europe was startled by the news that an attempt had been made by four Italians to assassinate the Emperor and Empress of the French while on their way to the opera. The royal party escaped unhurt, but five persons were killed, and above sixty wounded, by the hand-grenades that were exploded. The conspirators—Orsini, Pieri, Rudio, and Gomez—were arrested, and the two first were executed for the crime. These men evidently regarded Louis Napoleon as the great hindrance to the emancipation of their country.

Attempt of Orsini.

Towards the close of the year, unfriendly feelings began to be manifested between France and Austria, and on the 1st of January, 1859, the French Emperor addressed a few words to the Austrian minister, which were understood to imply the possibility of a rupture. The marriage of Prince Napoleon, son of Jerome, to the daughter of the King of Sardinia, which took place about this time, by no means lessened the alarm of Europe as to the approach of war. Ch. 31 A. D. 1859. France and Austria.

On the 29th of April the Austrians crossed the Ticino, and war commenced. The Emperor Napoleon instantly expressed his resolution to place himself at the head of the French army, in support of Sardinia, and on the 12th of May he disembarked at Genoa. The first battle was fought on the 20th, at Montebello, where, after a hard struggle, the Austrians were driven from their position with fearful loss. On the 31st a severe contest took place, chiefly between the Piedmontese and the Austrians, which again resulted in the retreat of the latter. On this as on several other occasions the King of Sardinia commanded his division in person, and exhibited remarkable bravery. Battles of Montebello and Magenta.

On Saturday, June the 4th, the great battle of Magenta took place. The Emperor of France, at the head of the Imperial Guard, and aided by the Zouaves, sustained in person, for several hours, the brunt of the conflict, which terminated in the complete defeat of the Austrians. Lombardy was now lost to them for ever. Garibaldi, with a body of volunteers, had effectually stopped the road over the Stelvio, taken possession of Como, roused the Valtelline, and entered Bergamo. Lodi and Piacenza were immediately evacuated, and on the 8th of June, Napoleon III. and Victor Emmanuel entered Milan in triumph.

One other great battle, however, remained to be fought. It was that of Solferino, memorable both for the number of troops engaged, and for the dignity of the commanders. The Austrian army is supposed to have numbered about 170,000 men, and that of the allies nearly 150,000. The battle com- Of Solferino.

Ch. 31 menced about five in the morning, and lasted till eight in the evening. The Emperor Napoleon again directed the operations of the French, and the Emperor of Austria was also in person on the field. The carnage was frightful, and the result disastrous to the Austrians, who were once more obliged to retreat.

A. D. 1859.

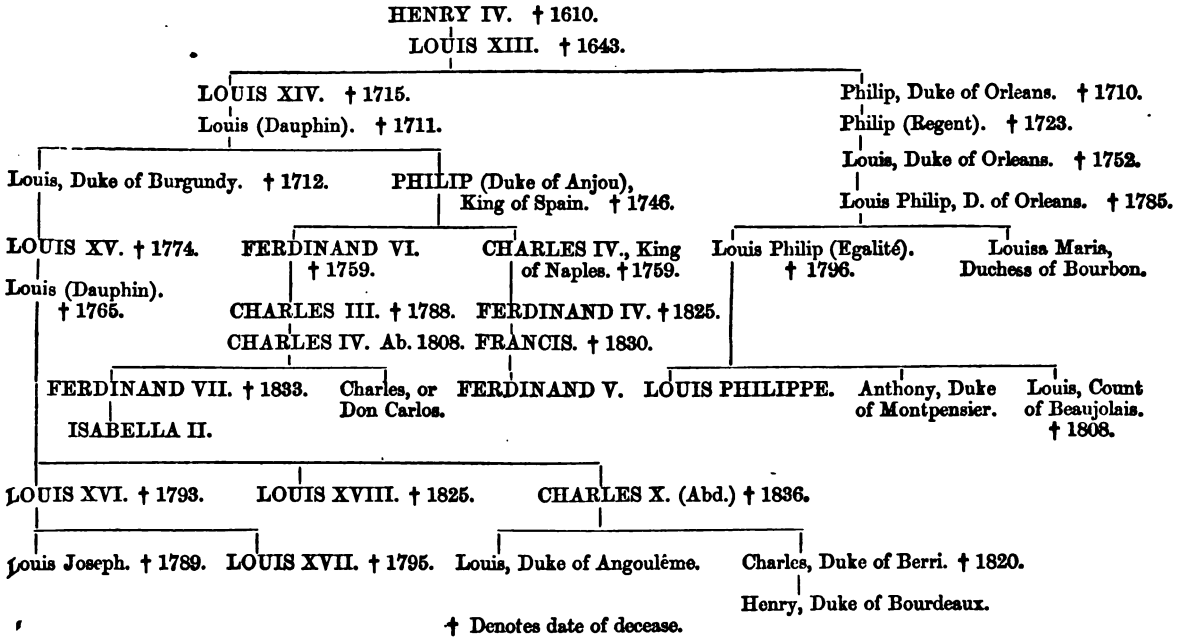
Everything now seemed to indicate the rapid extension of the conflict. Germany, full of alarm, was arming herself at all points, and Europe trembled at the prospect of a general war; when most unexpectedly, on the 8th of July, an armistice was concluded between the Powers engaged, and at a personal interview, which took place between the two Emperors at Villafranca, on the 11th of July, terms of peace were concluded. By this treaty Lombardy was nominally ceded to France, but really given to Sardinia; Venetia remains under Austrian dominion; Tuscany and the other revolted Duchies are to return to their old rulers, if the reinstatement of the Dukes can be accomplished without foreign intervention; and a general Confederation, with the Pope at its head, is to be formed for the promotion of Italian unity.

Peace of Villafranca.

It is difficult to imagine that any such arrangement as this can be final. Italy will give the world no rest till she is delivered from the dominion both of Austria and of the Papacy. Tuscany and Modena still refuse to receive back their Grand Dukes; Rome demands the abolition of ecclesiastical government; Venetia refuses to recognize the sway of the Austrians, and is kept down only by the bayonet. Europe, meanwhile, looks on in wonder and dismay at the enormous power of France, and the uncertain prospects of the future.

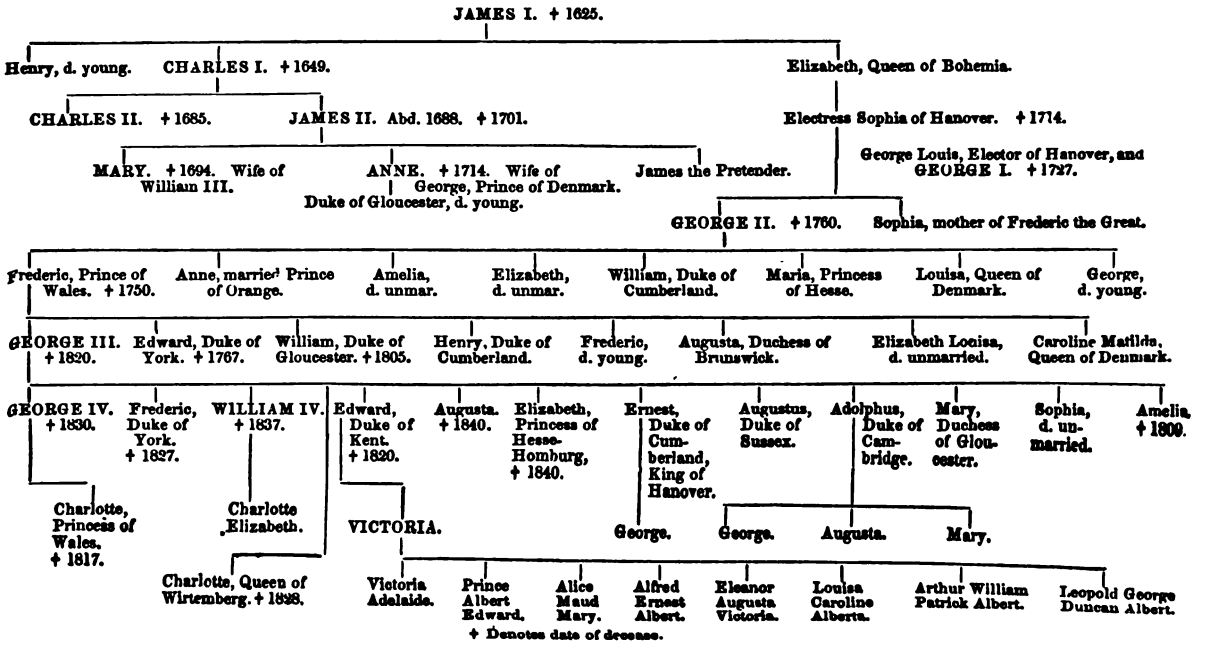
In the preparation of the preceding narrative, reference has frequently been made to the "Companion to the British Almanack," edited by Mr. Charles Knight. The assistance received from this quarter is the more gratefully acknowledged, because the papers on recent events inserted there have been found eminently trustworthy.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE BOURBONS.


HENRY IV. † 1610.
LOUIS XIII. † 1643.
LOUIS XIV. † 1715.
Louis (Dauphin). † 1711.
Philip, Duke of Orleans. † 1710.
Philip (Regent). † 1723.
Louis, Duke of Orleans. † 1752.
Louis Philip, D. of Orleans. † 1785.
Louis, Duke of Burgundy. † 1712.
PHILIP (Duke of Anjou), King of Spain. † 1746.
LOUIS XV. † 1774.
Louis (Dauphin). † 1765.
FERDINAND VI. † 1759.
CHARLES III. † 1788.
CHARLES IV. Ab. 1808.
CHARLES IV., King of Naples. † 1759.
FERDINAND IV. † 1825.
FRANCIS. † 1830.
Louis Philip (Egalité). † 1796.
Louisa Maria, Duchess of Bourbon.
FERDINAND VII. † 1833.
ISABELLA II.
Charles, or Don Carlos.
FERDINAND V.
LOUIS PHILIPPE.
Anthony, Duke of Montpensier.
Louis, Count of Beaujolais. † 1808.
LOUIS XVI. † 1793.
LOUIS XVIII. † 1825.
CHARLES X. (Abd.) † 1836.
Louis Joseph. † 1789.
LOUIS XVII. † 1795.
Louis, Duke of Angoulême.
Charles, Duke of Berri. † 1820.
Henry, Duke of Bourdeaux.

† Denotes date of decease.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE ROYAL FAMILY OF GREAT BRITAIN.


JAMES I. † 1625.
Henry, d. young.
CHARLES I. † 1649.
Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia.
CHARLES II. † 1685.
JAMES II. Abd. 1688. † 1701.
Electress Sophia of Hanover. † 1714.
MARY. † 1694. Wife of William III.
ANNE. † 1714. Wife of George, Prince of Denmark.
James the Pretender.
George Louis, Elector of Hanover, and GEORGE I. † 1727.
Duke of Gloucester, d. young.
GEORGE II. † 1760.
Sophia, mother of Frederic the Great.
Frederic, Prince of Wales. † 1750.
Anne, married Prince of Orange.
Amelia, d. unmar.
Elizabeth, d. unmar.
William, Duke of Cumberland.
Maria, Princess of Hesse.
Louisa, Queen of Denmark.
George, d. young.
GEORGE III. † 1820.
Edward, Duke of York. † 1767.
William, Duke of Gloucester. † 1805.
Henry, Duke of Cumberland.
Frederic, d. young.
Augusta, Duchess of Brunswick.
Elizabeth Louisa, d. unmarried.
Caroline Matilda, Queen of Denmark.
GEORGE IV. † 1830.
Frederic, Duke of York. † 1827.
WILLIAM IV. † 1837.
Edward, Duke of Kent. † 1820.
Augusta. † 1840.
Elizabeth, Princess of Hesse-Homburg, † 1840.
Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, King of Hanover.
Augustus, Duke of Sussex.
Adolphus, Duke of Cambridge.
Mary, Duchess of Gloucester.
Sophia, d. unmarried.
Amelia, † 1809.
Charlotte, Princess of Wales. † 1817.
Charlotte Elizabeth.
VICTORIA.
George.
George.
Augusta.
Mary.
Charlotte, Queen of Wirtemberg. † 1828.
Victoria Adelaide.
Prince Albert Edward.
Alice Maud Mary.
Alfred Ernest Albert.
Eleanor Augusta Victoria.
Louisa Caroline Alberta.
Arthur William Patrick Albert.
Leopold George Duncan Albert.

† Denotes date of decease.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

CHAP. I.

European Society in the Fifteenth Century.

What was the distinguishing characteristic of the fifteenth century?
What influences had been bequeathed by preceding centuries?
Describe generally the character of the scholastic philosophy.
In what respect did the influences of the fifteenth century singularly differ from those of our own times?
Name some of the great men of the fourteenth century who had sought to revive literature and the arts.
What influence had this revival on popular liberty?
How did it affect architectural taste?
Mention the three great discoveries of the fifteenth century.
When was gunpowder first used in battle?
What social effect did this discovery produce?
Name the inventors of the art of printing in moveable type, and state the general result on society.
When and by whom was America discovered?
What great invention led to it?
What gave the first great impulse to the cities of Italy?
Describe the character of these cities in the fifteenth century.
Mention some of the signs of advance in material prosperity.
Name some of the great painters of this period.
When was St. Peter's at Rome commenced and finished?
What discovery led to the establishment of a school of civil law?
Name some of the most celebrated poets and scholars of this and the preceding century.
What was the character of the University of Paris at this time?
Was civilization widely diffused at this period?
Mention the characteristics of a Christian civilization.
What great social evils depressed this age?
Describe the feudal system of the Middle Ages.
What changes had it by this time undergone?
Describe the social position of peasants at this period.
What circumstances had brought them to this state?
What was the severest burden in the lot of a serf?

Mention the great peculiarity of the papal power.
What was the character of the popes generally?
By what means was the papal power sustained?
Had these usurpations ever been useful to society?
Were they sustained by the sentiments of the people?
Mention some of the agencies by which priestly influence was upheld and extended.
What indications appear of a persecuting spirit at this time?
What were indulgences? and how were they abused?
Name some eminent Reformers who were unsuccessful.
How did these various influences tend to produce the great Reformer of the age?

CHAP. II.

Martin Luther and His Associates.

Where and when was Luther born, and what was the character of his childhood?
How did his religious impressions develop themselves?
What advice did he receive from Staupitz, the Vicar General of his Order?
Name the leading feature of the Augustinian Theology.
What was the first great idea of the Reformation?
Who was Luther's first distinguished patron?
What was the nature of his reputation as professor and preacher?
When did Luther go to Rome, and what effects were produced?
What course did he take on his return?
Who was Tetzel, and what brought him to Germany?
Describe the character and proceedings of this man.
What was the great object of the ninety-five propositions?
To the gates of what church were they prefixed?
Which of the rulers of Germany first approved their tendency?
What eminent scholar of the day rejoiced in them?
What was the character of Erasmus?
Who and what was Melancthon, and when did he arrive at Wittenberg?
Who and of what family was the reigning Pope at this time?
What was his character?
What was the first step taken by the Pope to meet the opposition of Luther?
Where did Luther's first interview with the Papal Legate take place?
Describe the Leipsic disputation, and give its date.
Give in brief Ranke's description of Luther's personal appearance.

What was the second great idea of the Reformation, and when was it developed?
What peculiar fitness had Luther for the work he had undertaken?
Describe the effects of a papal excommunication in the Middle Ages.
How did Luther treat the bull which excommunicated him?
What was the Diet of Worms, and when did it take place?
How came Luther to be imprisoned at Wartburg?
How was he employed there?
Who was Carlstadt, and what were his peculiarities?
What effect had Carlstadt's conduct on Luther?
Who was Münzer, and what connection had he with the Peasants' War?
Give the date of this war, also its character and extent.
Who did Luther marry, and what was the effect of this step?
Describe Zwingle, his life and character.
What were his chief differences with Luther?
On what point did Zwingle and Carlstadt agree?
What was the nature of Zwingle's influence in Switzerland?
To what extent had the Reformation spread in Germany by this time?
Describe the Diet of Augsburg, and give its date?
What was the confession of Augsburg?
When and where did the Reformers first assume the name of Protestants?
What was the object of the League of Smalcade, and when did it take place?
Mention the character of Luther's later days.
When and where did he die, and what was his general character?
Mention some leading Works on the Reformation.

CHAP. III.

The Emperor Charles V.

Describe the state of Germany when Luther appeared.
Of France; of Spain; of England; of Italy; of the Northern Kingdoms; and of the Ottoman power.
When and how did Charles V. become Emperor of Germany?
What was Charles' leading motive in life?
Who was his great rival?
What led to their mutual jealousies?
Did these jealousies disturb Europe, and how?
When and where did the battle of Pavia take place, and with what result?
When was Rome sacked, and by whom?
Who was the Constable Bourbon?
Give the date and conditions of the peace of Cambray.

What led to the Diet of Spires, and what were its results?
When did the peace of Nuremberg take place, and what were its leading stipulations?
Under what circumstances did Francis I. form an alliance with the Turks?
Who was Barbarossa?
Give the date of the peace of Cressy.
What was the object of the Council of Trent?
What influence predominated in that council?
How long did it last?
Are its decrees accounted authoritative, and by whom?
What effects followed the death of Luther, Francis, and Henry VIII. of England?
Describe the treachery and return of Maurice the Elector of Saxony to the Protestant cause.
What led to the reverses of Charles V.?
Give the date and conditions of the treaty of Passau.
State the motives which occasioned the marriage of Philip with Mary of England.
What great event now surprised all Europe?
To what place did Charles V. retire; and when and how did he die?

CHAP. IV.

The English Reformation to the Accession of Elizabeth.

What English monarch was the cotemporary of Charles and Luther?
When and at what age did he ascend the throne?
Who was his first wife, and what was her character?
What led to her divorce?
Under what pretext was it accomplished?
What great interests were involved in the transaction?
Who was Cardinal Wolsey, and how did he rise?
Describe his dignities and fall.
Mention the leading characteristics of Sir Thomas More.
What circumstance led to Archbishop Cranmer's elevation?
Who and what was Thomas Cromwell?
What events took place in consequence of the marriage of Henry to Anne Boleyn?
When was the independence of the Church of England first effected?
Did any great changes immediately follow the separation from Rome?
How was the suppression of the monasteries accomplished?
To what extent was the King enriched by this act?
At what date did the seizure of church property take place?

Was Henry at this time favorable to Luther and his views?
What evidence is there that he was still favorable to Romish doctrine?
Describe his last years, and give the date of his death.
What effect had the succession of Edward VI. upon the progress of the Reformation in England?
Mention the leading acts of Cranmer in its favour.
Describe the character of Archbishop Cranmer.
To whom had Edward bequeathed the crown, and under what influence?
What was the character of Lady Jane Grey?
Under the influence of what great principle was the Princess Mary supported in her claim to the throne?
What was the immediate result of her accession?
What effect was produced on the English mind by her marriage?
What led to Sir Thomas Wyatt's rebellion?
Mention the names of the leading persons who were executed.
Describe the extent of religious persecution which followed.
Name the leading sufferers by fire.
What was the character of Bonner and of Gardiner?
Mention the effects of the Marian persecution.
Describe the latter days and death of Mary, and state when and how it took place.

CHAP. V.

The Civil Wars of France, or the Huguenotic Contest.

Mention the period of the first great Huguenotic contest in France.
When did the Reform doctrines begin to spread in that country?
Who was John Calvin, and what great work of his first attracted attention in France?
Among what ranks in society did the Reformation at first spread?
Mention the date and manner of death of Henry II. of France.
What influence predominated during the minority of Charles IX.?
Who was Catharine de Medici, and of what party was she the head?
Name the heads of the Protestant party.
How long did the contest between these two parties last?
In what respect did the Huguenots differ from the English Puritans?
What were the political elements of this French struggle?
Describe the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and give its date.
What effect was produced by it throughout Europe?
Describe the latter days of Charles IX.
What were the results of the civil war?
When did the accession of Henry IV. take place?
Of what line was he the first monarch?

What led to his abjuration of Protestantism?
What results followed this apostacy?
Describe the Edict of Nantes, its object, and character.
What was the state of France during the twelve years that followed this Edict, regarding the country financially and socially?
When and how did Henry IV. die?
What was the state of public feeling at his decease?

CHAP. VI.

English History under Elizabeth.

When did Elizabeth of England succeed to the crown?
Why is her reign regarded as an era in English history?
On what were the claims of Mary Stuart to the throne rested?
By what means did Elizabeth revenge herself on Mary?
In what respects had the Reformation in Scotland differed from that of England?
What was the position of Mary at this time in reference to the Protestant party?
Whom did she marry, and what were its results?
What circumstances brought her to England, and when did she come?
Where was she confined; by whom, and how long?
Mention the date and manner of the death of the Regent Murray.
When was Mary executed, and under what pretext?
How and by whom was Spain governed at this time?
What events had recently taken place in the Netherlands, under Spanish influence?
Who had appeared as the great champion of the Protestants?
For what purpose was an alliance formed by Elizabeth with William of Orange?
Mention the great naval commander of the age, and some of his exploits.
By whom was war now declared with England?
Describe the efforts made to meet the Armada.
What circumstances contributed to the popularity of Elizabeth?
By what means was the Armada defeated?
Who and what was Lord Burleigh, and when did he die?
Mention the character of the rebellion in Ireland that broke out about this time.
Who was sent over to crush it; with what force, and with what results?
What led to the disgrace of Essex?
Describe the treason that subsequently brought him to the block.
What great man appeared at his trial?

How was Elizabeth affected by the death of her favorite?
Describe the policy of Lord Burleigh.
What was the most unhappy peculiarity of the reign of Elizabeth?
Who were the Nonconformists of that day, and how had they arisen?
Mention the chief commercial enterprises undertaken in the reign of Elizabeth.
What was the condition of England at that time?
Name some of the eminent men who then flourished.

CHAP. VII.

Philip II. and the Austrian Princes of Spain.

Under whose reign did Spain first become a powerful state?
By whom was the power of the Crown made absolute?
What were the chief characteristics of the reign of Philip II.?
In what relation did the Netherlands at this time stand to Spain?
Who was William Prince of Orange, and what was his character?
When did the United Provinces form themselves into a confederation?
What was the rank of the Stadtholder?
How did Philip II. acquire Portugal?
Describe the revolt of the Moors, its causes, and date.
What was the effect of their expulsion?
From what period does the decline of the Spanish monarchy date?
What were the principal causes of that decline?
How was it affected by the accession of Philip III.?
What was the character of the reign of Philip IV.?
When and how did Spain fall into the hands of the Bourbons?

CHAP. VIII.

The Counter Reformation and the Jesuits.

Mention the great feature of the sixteenth century.
What "Order" arose out of this period of conflict?
In what respects did the early differ from the later Jesuits?
Who was the founder of this Order, and when and where was he born?
Describe his early career and conversion.
Mention the names of his first converts.
When and where did they take their monastic vows?
How were they received at Rome?
When was the Order instituted, and under what conditions?
What circumstances induced the Pope to listen to their prayer?
What led to their rapid extension and great power?
Describe the missionary operations of Xavier.
Mention the leading features of the constitution of the Jesuits.

What were the chief defects in their system of education?
Name the evil element in their missions?
What was their character as Casuists?
For what was the Catholic Church remarkable during the latter half of the sixteenth century?
Mention the character of some of the Popes of this age.
What effect had the nepotism of the Popes on the aristocracy of Italy?

CHAP. IX.

The Thirty Years' War.

Mention the date of the Thirty Years' War.
Under whose reign did this contest commence?
What was the Evangelical Union, and where was it formed?
Name the great opposing league, and state by what powers each was supported.
When, and under what circumstances did the revolt in Bohemia break out?
What great battle decided the fate of that insurrection?
Name the soldier who now defied the power of Austria.
By whom was he encouraged and supported?
State who Wallestein was, and what brought him forward.
Describe the character of his troops.
What great poet has immortalized him?
Describe his pomp, successes, and disgrace.
What great friend to the Protestant cause was now raised up?
Describe the character of Gustavus Adolphus.
Mention some particulars of the sack of Magdeburg.
Give the date and consequences of the battle of Leipsic.
Under what conditions was the recall of Wallenstein accomplished?
What effect had this on the war?
When and how did Gustavus Adolphus die?
What was the conduct of Wallenstein after the battle of Lutzen?
When did Wallenstein's death take place?
How long after this was the war continued?
What motive induced Cardinal Richelieu to aid the Protestants in this war?
When, and under what conditions was the peace of Westphalia concluded?
What connection has this peace with modern European politics?
What were the moral and social effects of the war?

CHAP. X.

The Reign of Louis XIII., and the Administration of Cardinals Richelieu and Mazarin.

What was the condition of France during the civil commotions in Germany?
Who was the ruling genius of that age?
Name the Regent of France during the minority of Louis XIII.
What was the policy of Mary de Medici?
In what respects was it calamitous?
Who were the favorites of her Regency?
Mention the circumstances under which Richelieu appeared on the stage.
At what date did he become Cardinal and Secretary of State?
What were the great objects that animated him?
Describe the siege of La Rochelle, and mention the date of its surrender.
What was the effect on the Huguenots?
By what means did Richelieu seek to humble Austria?
What was the character of the French nobility at this time?
How were they at length humiliated?
Give the date of the death of Mary de Medici, and state what led to her exile.
How did Richelieu treat the Parliament of Paris?
Describe the character and functions of this Parliament.
What was the Court of Aids, and how was it suppressed?
What material benefits were conferred on France by the administration of Richelieu?
Mention his titles and possessions.
Describe his death and general character.
What events followed the death of Louis XIII.?
Who was Cardinal Mazarin?
What were his first measures?
With what rival influence had he to contend?
What was the Fronde, and why were the parties who composed it called Frondeurs?
What circumstance tended to impede their success?
Describe the character and proceedings of the Prince of Condé.
When did the power of the insurgent nobles decline?
Why was the Fronde war a failure?
Describe the last hours and death of Mazarin.

CHAP. XI.

England during the Reigns of James I. and Charles I.

What new era in English History commences with the accession of James the First?

What great social changes had been taking place during the reign of Elizabeth?

Mention the grand peculiarity of the reign of James I.

What effects were produced by the discovery of the Gunpowder Plot?

Mention the principal favorites of this reign.

Name some of the chief abuses of the royal authority.

When, and under what circumstances was Sir Walter Raleigh executed?

What changes had taken place in the composition of Parliament?

Mention the course adopted by Parliament to obtain a redress of grievances.

How did the country regard the proposed Spanish match?

To whom was Charles ultimately married?

When, and from what causes did the death of James occur?

In what respects did Charles I. resemble his father?

What was the result of continued contentions with the Commons?

What considerations sustained the Commons in their resistance to Charles?

When and how did the death of Buckingham occur?

Describe the "Petition of Right," and the consequences of the King's assent to it?

Who was the Earl of Strafford, and what was the character of his rule?

Name some of the leading Puritans of the day.

What was "Ship Money," and by what means was it attempted to be enforced?

What was Lord Clarendon's opinion of this impost?

Describe the course taken by John Hampden.

How long did his trial last, and what was its result?

Under what circumstances, and when did the insurrection in Scotland break out?

When was the new Parliament called, and how long did it last?

How long had the King governed without one?

When did the Long Parliament assemble?

How did it act towards Strafford and Laud?

When and how did the rebellion in Ireland break out?

Describe the attempt to seize the Five Members of Parliament, and give the date.

What effect was produced in the city?
What course did the King adopt?

CHAP. XII.

The English Revolution and Oliver Cromwell.

What event was regarded as a virtual declaration of war between Charles and the Parliament?
Where was the royal standard raised?
What was the first battle of any note, and when and where did it occur?
The death of Hampden: when did it take place, and where?
Describe the personal appearance of Oliver Cromwell.
What was the state of affairs during the two years that followed the battle of Edge Hill?
What led to the alliance with the Scots?
Give the date of the battle of Marston Moor, and state its consequences.
Where did Cromwell's military genius first become manifest?
What was the "Self-Denying Ordinance," and when was it passed?
When and by whom was the battle of Naseby fought?
When did the King join the Scottish army?
When and for what sum was he betrayed by them?
By what means did he fall into the hands of the army?
How was the duplicity of the King at length exposed?
Who were the "Levellers," and what were their views?
In whose hands did the government now virtually rest?
How was the genius of Cromwell displayed?
Where was the King confined at this time?
Give the dates of the trial and execution of Charles.
Where was power vested after the abolition of royalty?
How and by whom was the insurrection in Ireland put down?
Describe Cromwell's proceedings in Scotland.
Give the date and results of the battle of Worcester.
Of whom did the "Rump" Parliament consist?
By whom and how was it dissolved?
What steps led to the Protectorate?
Name the provisions of the new Constitution.
How and when was the Dutch War terminated?
When was the new Parliament dissolved?
How long had Cromwell governed without one?
What was the character of Cromwell's dictatorship?
Give an account of his latter days, and the date of his death.
What great change speedily followed?

CHAP. XIII.

The Reign of Charles II.

When and where did Charles II. land?
In what temper was he received by the English people?
Why was the rule of Cromwell odious to England?
Of what character were the first acts of Charles?
What powers had the Constitution granted to him?
State the form in which encroachments began.
What was the character of the alliance with Louis XIV.?
How did Lord Clarendon act in this matter?
What was the character of Parliament at this time?
Describe the effect of shutting up the Exchequer.
Who formed the "Cabal," and why were they so called?
Name some of the infringements of Charles on the Constitution.
Mention a valuable act passed in this reign.
What penal laws were passed against Catholics?
What led to the passing of these laws?
Describe the condition of Nonconformists.
When was the "Act of Uniformity" passed, and what were its effects?
How did the ejected ministers act during the great plague?
What was the Rye House Plot?
What eminent men suffered in consequence?
Describe the social state of England during this reign—its roads, literature, and general condition of the people.

CHAP. XIV.

The Reign of James II. and the Second English Revolution.

When did Charles II. die, and who succeeded him?
How was James treated by the Commons?
What invasion took place, and under whose guidance?
How did it result?
Describe the reception of Monmouth at Taunton.
How was he received through the West of England?
Describe the battle of Sedgmoor, and the fate of Monmouth.
What was the Bloody Assize, and how was it conducted?
Give an account of the proceedings and character of Judge Jeffries.
What were the two great objects to which James was devoted?
By what means did he seek to restore Romanism?
What was his conduct towards the Universities?
How did the Universities behave?
What methods were taken to control Parliament?
What attack was made on municipal corporations?

Give the date of the "Declaration of Indulgence."
What led to the arrest and trial of the Seven Bishops?
How was their acquittal received by the nation?
What was the object of the conspiracy now formed?
Who were the leading conspirators?
What concessions were made by the King?
Give the date and manner of the landing of the Prince of Orange.
What was his position for a time?
Name the leading deserters to William.
Describe the flight of the King.
By whom was the throne offered to William, and under what conditions?
What was the "Declaration of Rights"?

CHAP. XV.

Louis XIV. of France.

What was the great characteristic of the reign of Louis XIV.?
When was he born, and in what year did he die?
How and by whom was France governed during his minority?
What great statesman succeeded Cardinal Mazarin, and in what department was he most distinguished?
At what age did Louis assume the powers of government?
What sum did he then come into possession of, and by whom was it bequeathed?
What great works did Colbert promote, and what institutions did he found?
In what phrase did Louis XIV. express his notions of government?
When and by whom was the palace of Versailles built?
Whom did Louis XIV. marry?
Name some of the unprincipled women under whose influence he fell.
What was the character of Madame de Montespan?
Who was Madame de Maintenon, and what was her character?
What was the date of her marriage to Louis XIV.?
Name her greatest defect, and state how it influenced the King.
Name the two greatest military commanders of this reign.
Also the most eminent statesmen, preachers, and literary men.
Why, and in what way was independence of thought repressed by Louis?
What was the character of the literature of the day?
Describe the condition of the French nobility at this time.
Who were the Jansenists, and what were their distinguishing opinions?
Who was the great antagonist of the Jansenists?
What eminent persons were numbered among the Quietists?
At what period were the Huguenots first deprived of legal rights?

What other persecuting enactments followed?
What was the social state of the Huguenots?
Describe the "Dragonades."
When was the Edict of Nantes repealed, and what consequences followed?
Under what influence was this act of injustice accomplished?
What effect had the revocation upon the social condition of France?
In what way did it benefit other countries?
Compare the early and later years of Louis XIV.

CHAP. XVI.

WARS IN EUROPE AGAINST LOUIS XIV. TO PRESERVE THE BALANCE OF POWER.

What was the most striking political feature of the seventeenth century?
With whom, and how did the idea of a Balance of Power originate?
Who developed the idea of this salutary check?
What modern wars have originated in the desire to uphold this balance?
Give the date of the treaty of Westphalia.
On what pretext, and at what time was the peace of Europe broken by Louis XIV.?
What was the state of Holland and the Low Countries at this time?
Name the great commander in this war, and give a sketch of his character.
What result followed the conquest of Flanders?
Give the date of the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
What country did Louis XIV. next attack, and when did the war break out?
State the relative strength of the combatants.
What conditions were demanded by Louis before he would consent to peace?
How did the Dutch act under these circumstances?
In what way did Providence appear on their behalf?
Who were the De Witts, and what was their fate?
What was the character of William of Orange?
What was the character of Turenne, and when and how did he die?
Give the date of the peace of Nimeguen.
What were the general results of the war thus closed?
Under what circumstances did hostilities revive?
How long did this war last, and with what results?
What circumstances led to peace?
Give the date of the treaty of Ryswick.
When and how did the war of the Spanish succession commence?

What English general now came upon the stage?
Name some of his chief victories.
Give the date of the peace of Utrecht, and the year of Louis the Fourteenth's death.

CHAP. XVII.

Reigns of William III. and Anne.

Give the date of the arrival of William III. at Whitehall. Also that of his coronation.
What great rebellion now broke out, and under whom?
Describe the siege of Londonderry.
Give the date of the battle of the Boyne, and its results.
What was the condition of Ireland at this time?
What was the "Place" Bill, and when was it passed?
What was the object of the "Triennial" Bill?
When and by whom was the liberty of the press established in England?
Give some instances of the foresight of William III.
What constitutional privileges were gained by the House of Commons in this reign?
Describe the "Act of Settlement," and give the date when it was passed.
When did William III. die, and how long had he reigned?
What was his general character?
Name some celebrated men who adorned this time—divines, philosophers, and architects.
Give the date of the accession of Queen Anne.
Name the more memorable events of her reign.
In what respect did this reign resemble in its political character that of William?
By what standard should the greatness of a country be measured?
Sketch the character of Marlborough.
What eminent statesman rose and fell with Marlborough?
Give the origin of the terms "Whig" and "Tory."
Who were the Tory leaders during the reign of Anne?
Who was Dr. Sacheverell, and why was he brought to trial?
What was the result of his prosecution?
Give the date of the "Union" of Scotland and England.
Name some of the leading provisions of the Act of Union.
What effect had this union on the two countries?
Enumerate the leading "Wits" of the reign of Queen Anne.
Who was Joseph Addison, and what was his character?
Name some of the peculiarities of Dean Swift.
Give the date of the death of Queen Anne.

CHAP. XVIII.

RUSSIA AND SWEDEN UNDER PETER THE GREAT AND CHARLES XII.

When did the political importance of Russia first become appreciated?
By whom were its resources first developed?
From what race are the Russians descended?
How and by whom was Christianity introduced into Russia?
In what century did Moscow first become a powerful city?
Under what monarch was the Tartar rule abolished?
When, and at what age did Peter the Great ascend the throne?
In what direction were his reforms first carried on?
Name the date and some of the incidents of his first visit to foreign countries.
What led to his return home?
How did he accomplish a change of dress in the people?
Name some beneficial changes which took place under his direction.
With whom did he first go to war, and under what pretext?
Give the date of the siege of Narva, and its results.
How did Peter rise out of his defeats?
What was the early history of the Empress Catharine?
In what year were the foundations of St. Petersburgh laid?
What number of people perished in its erection, and from what cause?
Name some of the consequences of this war with Sweden.
Mention the date of the battle of Pultowa, and its results.
What new enemy, and in what force, now appeared against Peter?
By whom was he rescued from ruin?
In what year did Peter undertake his second tour?
What countries did he visit, and how was he received?
What remark did he make on seeing a statue of Cardinal Richelieu?
Who was Alexis, what was his conduct, and how did he die?
Give the date of the treaty of Neustadt, and its effect.
When, and under what circumstances was Catharine crowned Empress?
When did Peter die, and what was his general character?
What European monarch was the great rival of Peter?
For what was Charles XII. distinguished?
What was the character of the early mythology of Scandinavia?
Who were the Northmen?
When and by whom was Christianity planted in Sweden?
Who was Gustavus Vasa, and in what year was he made King of Sweden?
What induced him to become a Lutheran?
In what year did Charles XII. ascend the throne?

What was the condition of the country at that time?
Mention some of his earlier traits of character.
What circumstances developed his energies?
With what sentiments did his military career commence?
Mention some of his early victories.
How did he treat the Elector of Saxony?
What objects now became the dream of his life?
Describe the conduct of Charles when taking refuge in Turkey, after the battle of Pultowa.
When and how did he die?

CHAP. XIX.

Reigns of George I. and George II.

Give the date of the accession of George I.
What was his general character?
What form does the political history of England take after the accession of the House of Hanover?
Who was Sir Robert Walpole, and to what office was he now appointed?
Who were his colleagues in the ministry?
Name his great Tory opponents.
Give the date of the invasion of England by Prince James Stuart.
What were his adherents called?
Who were his chief partizans?
What was the result of this attempt?
When was the "Septennial Bill" passed, and what was its object?
In what department did Sir Robert Walpole chiefly distinguish himself?
What was the nature of the South Sea bubble?
How did it bear upon the national debt?
Why did Walpole vigorously oppose the scheme?
What were the first effects on the nation?
To what extent did the mania for speculation proceed?
Name some of the bubble schemes.
By what means was the popular delusion dispersed?
How did Walpole act in the emergency?
What general policy did he adopt?
When and how did George I. die?
How was Walpole regarded by George II.
The East India Company: give the date of the first association; the date of the first charter, and by whom bestowed.
Mention the character of its second charter, and the amount at that time of its capital.

What did Walpole do for the East India Company?
Who was Lord Townsend, and what was his character?
What was the nature of Walpole's foreign policy?
When did the power of Walpole begin to decline?
How was he treated on his retirement from office?
Who were Wesley and Whitefield?
What was the result of Wesley's labours?
What the character of Whitefield's eloquence?
What political combination was called the "Broad Bottom"?
Who was the young Pretender, and when did he land in Scotland?
How was he at first received?
When did the battle of Preston Pans take place, and with what result?
What distinguished man fell there?
How far into England did the Pretender advance?
What was the state of his army at this time?
Give the date of the battle of Culloden, and its results.
How did the Pretender escape, and when and where did he die?
When did the crown jewels return to England?
Who was the elder Pitt, and when was he born?
What was the character of his eloquence?
What eminent men formed part of his coalition administration?
What great events marked his career?
Give the date of the accession of George III.
When was the peace of Paris effected?

CHAP. XX.

Louis XV. of France.

During what period did Louis XV. reign? Give the dates.
Who governed France during his minority?
What was the financial condition of the country at the accession of Louis XV.?
What remedy was proposed for financial embarrassment, and by whom?
What reason was urged in support of the proposition?
What course did the Regent adopt?
Who was John Law?
What was his scheme for relieving the State?
To what great companies was Law's bank allied by the Regent?
What monopolies were granted to these companies, and what was the amount of capital?
To what extent were the shares taken by the public?
What effect was produced on Parisian society?
To what price did the shares rise?

What was the fallacy involved in the scheme?
How did the bubble at last burst?
What was the result of this great national delusion?
What became of Law?
What did the Government gain by the fraud?
What was the general character of the Regent Duke of Orleans?
Sketch the character of Louis XV. when he arrived at majority?
Who was his first minister, and in what year did he assume power?
What was the main subject of interest during his administration?
In what did the Jansenist controversy originate?
What occasioned its prolongation?
In what respects did Jansenism in France resemble or differ from Puritanism in England?
Who was the author, and what the character of the "Provincial Letters"?
Had the controversy any influence, and what, in the Parliament of Paris?
What was a "Bed of Justice," and in what cases was it resorted to?
How did the Parliament of Paris become a judicial tribunal?
Does any similar Court of Appeal exist in England?
What led to the growth of the power of the Parliament of Paris?
What was the "Bull Unigenitus"?
How was it regarded by the Parliament?
What quarrel arose during the administration of Cardinal Fleury between the Clergy and the Parliament?
What course did the King adopt, and what was the result?
When did Fleury die, and what rule succeeded to his?
What was the master passion of Madame de Pompadour?
Describe her court and character.
What minister assumed power under her influence?
What was the character of his administration?
When were the Canadas lost to France?
What memorable event arose out of the policy of the Duc de Choiseul?
What was the primary cause of the fall of the Jesuits?
Of what event was advantage taken in order to effect it?
Describe the nature of the commercial transactions of the Jesuits.
What moral effect was produced by the investigations of the Parliament of Paris?
What course did Louis XV. take in this emergency?
In what year were the Jesuits expelled?
When were they driven from Spain and Portugal?
By what Pope was the Order suppressed?
What was the fate of Ganganelli?

Where did the Jesuits finally take refuge?
Describe the circumstances that prepared the way for the subversion of the French monarchy.
How were the middle classes affected by the literature of the age?
What view did the King himself take of the tendencies of things?
In what celebrated phrase did he express his opinions?
When and how did he die?

CHAP. XXI.

Colonial Wars between England and France.

Under whose administration in England were the Colonies first regarded as of great importance?
What was the condition and extent of the American Colonies in the year 1688?
What other nations had colonized in America?
When was the St. Lawrence first explored, and in what year was Quebec founded?
What was the relative geographical positions of the English and French Colonies in 1688?
How did mutual jealousies spring up?
What were the aims of Louis XIV. in reference to America?
What effect had the treaty of Utrecht on the English settlements?
What French colony arose out of Law's financial scheme?
How were the English Colonies at this time regarded by the Home Government?
How did Sir Robert Walpole act towards them?
What was their moral and religious character?
Who was David Brainerd, and for what was he distinguished?
Who was Jonathan Edwards, and by what celebrated treatise is he best known?
What was Franklin doing about the middle of the last century?
What claim on the part of the French led to their contest with the English?
On what mission was Washington sent in 1755 by the colony of Virginia, and how did he distinguish himself?
What previous struggle had taken place?
Under whom, and when was the war prosecuted on a larger scale?
With what results?
What expeditions did Mr. Pitt send out in 1758?
What was the result?
What great general fell during this contest?
Where, and under what circumstances?

To what other part of the world did the colonial jealousy of the two countries extend?
When and where was the fortress of St. George erected?
When and by whom was the Island of Bombay ceded to the English?
In what year was the settlement on the Hooghly founded?
What other nations had colonized in India at this time?
What were the French possessions?
Who were the rulers of the French Presidencies in 1744?
Which of them formed the scheme of founding an Indian empire?
What became of La Bourdonnais?
When is Clive first heard of in India?
What was the state of the empire of the Great Mogul at this time?
What was its condition in the sixteenth century?
Who was the Nabob of Arcot, and which party did he favour?
What course did Dupleix adopt on the death of the Viceroy of the Deccan?
What counter scheme was consequently suggested by Clive, and with what result?
Who was Surajah Dowlah, and for what act of atrocity was he distinguished?
In what year did this take place?
How was the act avenged by Clive?
What reward was bestowed by Meer Jaffier?
What was the later course and fate of Meer Jaffier?
In what year may British power be regarded as first firmly planted in the centre of India?

CHAP. XXII.

Frederic the Great and the Seven Years' War.

What was the absorbing passion of Frederic II. of Prussia?
In what respect did he differ from other conquerors?
When and where was he born?
Which of his progenitors did he most resemble?
What was the character of Frederic William?
How did he train his children? and what effect had his system of education on his son Frederic II.?
In what year did Frederic II. ascend the throne?
What great act of aggression marked the commencement of his career?
To whom did Silesia then belong? and by what public act was it guaranteed?
What great confederation was now formed?
What was the date of the celebrated Seven Years' War?

How did the first campaign open?
What was the early character of the second campaign?
How did Frederic rise out of his difficulties?
What was the effect of the battles of Rossbach and Leuthen?
What was Napoleon's opinion of the battle of Leuthen?
How was Frederic regarded in England at this time?
Describe the battle of Zorndoff and the conduct of Frederic after it.
What part did the Pope take in this contest?
What effect was produced in Europe by the gifts of the Pope?
What was the general character of the fourth year of the war?
In what year did England withdraw from the contest, and from what cause?
What unexpected change now took place in the fortunes of Frederic?
In what year was the treaty of Hubertsburg signed?
What effect did the Seven Years' War produce on Prussia?
How did Frederic endeavour to alleviate this great distress?
What great political crime followed the Seven Years' War?
In what year was the partition effected?
When was the Germanic Union formed?
In what year, at what age, and after how long a reign did Frederic die?
What was his general character, and who were his chief friends?

CHAP. XXIII.

Maria Theresa and Catharine the Second.

How was the constitution of Germany settled at the peace of Westphalia?
What were the functions of the Imperial Chamber?
What was the Aulic Council, and how was it constituted?
What political relationship did the various German States hold to each other?
Of what did the Diet of the empire consist, and of what matters did it take cognizance?
What was the position of the Emperor?
Who was Emperor of Germany at the peace of Westphalia, and when did he die?
What great events occurred during the reign of Leopold his successor?
What relation did Hungary bear to Austria at this time?
Describe the insurrection of 1667 and the measures taken to repress it.
Who was the great Hungarian leader?
What was the result of the struggle?

What other European power was humbled and crippled by Leopold?
Give the date of the peace of Carlowitz.
When did Leopold die, and how long had he reigned?
What was his character?
Who succeeded Leopold?
For what is his reign remarkable?
State the time of his death, and his character.
When did Charles VI. begin to reign? and what was the state of Europe at this time?
What was the "Pragmatic Sanction," when was it drawn up, and with what object?
In what year did Maria Theresa ascend the throne?
What was her situation?
By whom were claims made upon her territory?
To whom did the Queen appeal?
What part did England take?
What led England into the contest?
Name a great victory gained by the French in 1745 over the English.
When was the treaty of Breslau made?
How soon was it followed by the peace of Dresden?
Whom did Maria Theresa marry, and under what title was her consort elected Emperor?
Who acted as co-regent with her after the death of the Emperor?
Name some of the great qualities of Maria Theresa.
In what year did she die?
What other reign was interlinked with that of Frederic II.?
When did the Empress, wife of Peter the Great, die?—and who succeeded to the throne?
What relation was he to Peter the Great?
When and how did he die, and what Princesses in turn succeeded?
What was the character of the Empress Elizabeth? When did she die, and who succeeded to her?
What was the character of Peter III., and what was his fate?
When and by what means did Catherine II. succeed in establishing her power?
What course of policy did she pursue?
What great crimes did she commit?
Why did the Ottoman Porte declare war against her?
When did the war terminate? and how did it contribute to the aggrandizement of Russia?
Give the date of the treaty of Jassy.
When was the dominion of Russia first established on the Black Sea?

In what year did Catharine die?
Who were her most distinguished favorites?
What rewards did Prince Potemkin obtain?
With what European monarch has Catharine sometimes been compared?

CHAP. XXIV.

Calamities of Poland.

What was the position of Poland in the sixteenth century?
At what period was Christianity first introduced into Poland?
When did the dynasty of the Jagellons commence, and how long did it last?
What was the general character of these Princes?
Name the brightest period in Polish History.
From what period may the decline of Poland be dated?
How was the successor of Sigismund II. elected?
Describe the plain of Praga on that occasion.
Who was elected, and under what limitations?
When and how did Henry abandon his throne?
When did John Sobieski become King, and under what title?
What was the state of Poland at this time?
By what great achievement was Sobieski distinguished?
What was the result to Christendom?
Give the date of the siege of Vienna by the Turks.
Who succeeded Sobieski, and what was the condition of Poland under his reign?
To what event did this state of things lead in the next reign?
Had Maria Theresa any scruples about this act of spoliation, and how did she express them?
Why did not England and France interfere to prevent the two partitions of Poland?
Who was Zamoyski?—What course did he recommend, and by whom was he over-ruled?
Under whom was the final struggle made for Polish independence?
What was the fate of Kosciusko?
Name the chief causes that contributed to the fall of Poland.

CHAP. XXV.

The Decline of the Ottoman Empire.

At what period were the Turks regarded as the most successful of warriors?
What great movement arrested their progress in Europe?

When did the Turkish Empire first show signs of weakness and decay?
On the ruins of what Empire did the Turkish power arise?
From whence did the Turks spring?
At what period did they seize the Persian throne?
From whom did the Turkish Sultan deliver the Caliph of Bagdad, and at what time?
With what result to the Sultan?
By what period may the Turkish power be regarded as established in Asia Minor?
What acts of injustice led to the Crusades?
Who may be regarded as the founder of the Ottoman Empire, and when did he reign?
Name some of his successors.
When and where did Bajazet defeat an army of a hundred thousand, and what boast did he utter?
Who was the great antagonist of Bajazet?
Where and when was he taken prisoner, and how was he treated?
Under which of his successors was Constantinople besieged?
In what year did it fall? and before what forces?
How was it treated?
Describe the progress of the Turkish arms after Constantinople had become the capital of their Empire.
With what success did Charles V. endeavour to check their progress?
When did Solyman the Magnificent come to the throne, and how did he die?
What was the character of his reign?
Name the four next monarchs, and state briefly their general character.
What barrier was raised against further invasion by the peace of Carlovitz?
Who have been the greatest enemies of the Turks for the last 150 years?
What causes have chiefly tended to promote the decline of Turkish power?
Who were the Janissaries, and what was their character?
What is the general character of Turkish institutions?
Upon what basis do the laws of the country rest?
What is the present character of the people?

CHAP. XXVI.

Reign of George the Third.

When did George III. ascend the throne of Great Britain?
What was the state of the country at that time?
Who became Prime Minister?

What chiefly signalized the Grenville administration?
Who was Wilkes? and what first brought him into public notice?
How was he treated? and by what great man was constitutional liberty then defended?
What was the result of his being arraigned at the bar of the House of Commons?
What damages did Wilkes afterwards obtain against the Secretary of State?
When and for what cause did Mr. Grenville resign, and who succeeded him as minister?
In what celebrated work was the Duke of Grafton attacked?
What are the characteristics of the "Letters of Junius"?
For what county was Wilkes now elected member?
What was the result of his return to England while under sentence of outlawry?
Describe the state of public opinion at this time.
What eminent man defended his cause?
To what extent, and during what years, did Wilkes become a popular idol?
When did he die, and what was the character of the man?
When and by whom was the first attempt made to tax the American Colonies?
What duties were imposed, and with what object?
On what ground did the colonies object to taxation?
What eminent men supported the colonists in their objections?
When did the Stamp Act pass, and what were its immediate consequences?
By what ministry was the Act repealed?
What was the character of Lord Rockingham?
Who succeeded him as minister?
How was the popularity of Lord Chatham destroyed?
What new attempt was now made to tax America?
In what years did Lord Chatham and the Duke of Grafton resign office?
What course did Lord North take in reference to America?
By what eminent men was the cause of liberty advocated in America?
What event led to a further inflaming of public discontent?
What opportunity was lost by Lord North for terminating the difficulties?
What brought matters to a crisis?
In what year was the bill introduced for removing the customs from Boston?

What measures were now adopted by the colonists?
How did the Government receive the "Declaration of Rights"?
What course was taken by Lord Chatham and Mr. Burke?
Where was the first battle fought, and on what day?
When did Washington first take the command of the American army?
What English Generals commanded the Royal forces?
What event signalized the first campaign?
What was the number and character of Washington's army?
On what day was the Declaration of Independence published?
Wherein was the greatness of Washington chiefly displayed?
When did La Fayette join the American cause?
What events chiefly distinguished the campaign of 1777?
Describe the condition of the American army during the following winter.
What course was urged upon Congress by Washington? and with what result?
Describe generally the campaigns of 1778, 1779, and 1780.
What circumstances led to the desertion of General Arnold?
Who was Major André, and what was his fate?
When did the surrender of Lord Cornwallis take place?
What was the effect of this capitulation?
How long after this event did the war linger on?
When were preliminary articles of peace signed? and where?
What course did Washington now take?
What events in England were contemporaneous with the American War?
When and from what cause did the Gordon Riots break out?
What mischief was done, and how many lives were sacrificed in their suppression?
In what year did Mr. Pitt become Prime Minister?
Who were his colleagues?
What was the character of his policy?
Who were his chief opponents?
What leading events characterized his administration?
In what year was the association of "United Irishmen" formed?
What was its professed object, and how far did it extend its ramifications?
What concessions were now made to the Catholics?
When and where did the insurrection break out?
In what county was it most formidable?
What number of persons perished through the rebellion, and to what extent was property destroyed?

Give the date of the Union of Ireland and England.
What was the effect of this Union?
Was any further attempt at rebellion made?
When, under what leaders, and with what success?
When and by whom was the first plan for Parliamentary Reform brought forward?
What other attempts in this direction were made by Mr. Pitt?
Why did he subsequently abandon the subject?
Who was Warren Hastings?
In what year was he appointed head of the Government in Bengal?
What great event marked his Government?
How did he raise a revenue to carry on war?
When was Benares added to the dominions of the Company?
How did Hastings deal with the Princesses of Oude?
In what year did he return to England?
Through whose influence was he impeached by the House of Lords?
Who were his chief antagonists?
How long did the trial last, and with what result?
Describe the character and genius of Edmund Burke.
Also of Charles James Fox.
Also of Richard Brinsley Sheridan.
In what year did Parliament assume more direct control over the East India Company?
What were the leading provisions of the Act of 1784?
By whom was it introduced?
Who was the first Governor General under the new Act?
What was the principle followed in India to secure territorial acquisition?
Enumerate the possessions of the East India Company when Lord Cornwallis was sent to India.
What powers remained unconquered?
What was the character of Tippoo Saib?
When and by whom was Seringapatam invested?
On what terms did Tippoo obtain peace?
In what year did the Marquis of Wellesley go out as Governor General?
When and how was Seringapatam taken? and what was the fate of Tippoo?
What results speedily followed?
State the conquests that have since taken place, and the dates of each.
When did the Charter of the East India Company expire, and what change of system then took place?
What is the present extent of our Indian Empire?

Name the hereditary Princes that are now stipendiaries of the Company.
In what year did Wilberforce first bring forward his motion for the abolition of the Slave Trade?
Where and by whom was the first movement against this traffic made?
Who supported Mr. Wilberforce in the House of Commons?
In what year did the revolutionary war with France break out?
By whom was it chiefly directed?
Describe the character and genius of Mr. Pitt.

CHAP. XXVII.

The French Revolution.

Under what five heads may the causes of the French Revolution be classed?
Ought it to be regarded as an inevitable event?
Name the four philosophers who exerted the greatest influence in producing it.
Who was Helvetius, and what was the character of his writings?
By whom was he eclipsed?
When was Voltaire born, and what were his leading characteristics?
By what was he chiefly distinguished?
In what respects did Rousseau differ from Voltaire?
Of whom might Voltaire be said to be the father?
Of whom Rousseau?
What was the mental character of Rousseau?
What the moral?
In what respect were his writings specially pernicious?
Who was Diderot, and what were his principles?
Of what body was he the representative?
In what was the folly of the "Encyclopædists" most visible?
What ideas were now spread among the French people?
What great practical evils prevailed?
What was the condition of the agricultural population?
What the character of the game laws?
On what classes did taxation press most heavily?
What classes were exempt?
How was justice administered?
What was the character of the landed proprietor?
What the number and character of the nobles?
What was the *lettre de cachet*, and how had it been used?
Describe the state of the finances when Louis XVI. ascended the throne.
In what year did his accession take place?

What was his general character?
Who was his first Prime Minister?
Name the four ministers who followed in succession.
In what year did Necker retire?
What amount was added to the public debt in the course of the following years?
Who were the "Notables," and when were they assembled?
What course did they take?
Under what circumstances was Necker recalled?
When and where did the "States General" meet?
Of what number of persons did it consist?
What classes did it represent?
What course was taken by the Deputies of the "Tiers Etat"?
Who had the greatest influence in the "National Assembly"?
What was the character of Mirabeau?
Describe the popular commotions that now took place.
How was the supply of food affected?
What was the effect of the measures passed by the Assembly?
What means were taken to improve the finances?
Who recommended the spoliation of the Church?
What measures were adopted to promote sales?
How did the system of *Assignats* arise?
What was the ultimate result of this plan?
What was the "National Federation," and when did it take place?
What followed the emigration of the nobles?
When did Mirabeau die?
Describe the attempted flight of the King.
On what day did the "Constituent Assembly" dissolve?
What good resulted from its legislation?
What took the place of the Constituent Assembly?
Name the three parties of which the "Legislative Assembly" was composed.
Who were the leaders of the "Jacobins"?
What was the condition of the King at this time?
Describe the preparations now made for war.
What were the events of the 10th of August, 1792?
When did the "National Convention" commence its sittings?
Name its most influential leaders.
Who was Danton, and for what massacre was he responsible?
What was Marat, and how did he die?
In what respects did Robespierre differ from his colleagues?
What were the first measures of the Convention?

When did the trial of the King commence?
By whom was he defended?
Mention the date of his execution, and say where he was buried.
What now marks the spot where he was executed?
Against what countries did the Convention now declare war?
What was the "Committee of Public Safety"?
Who were the "Dictators" of France now?
To whom were the different departments of Government assigned?
State the functions of the Committee of Public Safety.
Describe the Reign of Terror.
Who were among the first victims?
Which of the Revolutionists speedily followed?
Describe the last hours of Robespierre.
What number of persons perished by the guillotine?
How was the war carried on during this state of anarchy?
What reaction took place after the Reign of Terror?
Describe the Constitution of 1798.
What was the function of the "Five Hundred"?
What that of the "Ancients"?
What that of the "Directory"?
What new agitations now commenced?
How and by whom were they suppressed?
What may be regarded as the general results of the French Revolution?

CHAP. XXVIII.

Napoleon Buonaparte.

When and where was Napoleon born?
For what was he early distinguished?
What was his first military achievement?
What command did he in consequence receive, and from whom?
Name the "Directors," and state who were among the most distinguished?
Through whom did Buonaparte receive his appointments?
When was Napoleon first married, and to whom?
What had been the early history of Josephine?
Of what troops did the army of Italy consist?
Name some of the more distinguished officers.
Mention the leading battles in the campaign of 1796 in Italy.
With what result to Italy?
What other French army was in the field at this time?
Describe the financial position of England and France when this war broke out.
What was the general character of the campaign of 1797?

Describe the relative condition of Austria, Holland, and Spain.
How was England affected by this state of things?
What course did Parliament take?
What memorable event in the Naval History of England now occurred?
How was the mutiny suppressed?
By what great victory was the disgrace of it washed away?
What Naval commanders distinguished themselves on this occasion?
What eminent man died about this time?
Describe the course of Napoleon in Austria and Italy during the year 1797.
What was the fate of Venice?
From whence was peace now dictated by Napoleon, and with what nations?
What characteristic of Buonaparte was exhibited in the treaty of Campo Formio?
To whom was Venice surrendered by this treaty?
What course did Napoleon now take?
How did he veil his scheme for the subjugation of the East?
On what day, and from what port did the French expedition sail?
When and where did he land, and what course did he take?
What great battle speedily followed, and with what result?
By what occurrence was this conquest rendered worthless?
How did Napoleon act in the emergency?
Name a memorable siege which was undertaken.
Who defended the fortress, and with what result?
Describe the condition of the French army.
What great battle was next won?
When and with whom did Napoleon return to France?
What favorable events had occurred during his absence?
What events of an unfavorable character?
In what spirit was Napoleon received on his return to Paris?
How was he treated by the generals and by the civil leaders of the people?
What course did he take at this juncture?
What title did he soon after assume?
Was any resistance made, and by what body?
Name the three chief ministers of Napoleon.
What was the first step of the "Consul"?
How was the overture received by England?
What were the forces of Great Britain at this time?
What foreign contingent was also available?
How did the genius of Napoleon now manifest itself?
What measures did he adopt?

Where did hostilities commence, and with what immediate result?
Describe a celebrated military movement made about this time by Napoleon.
When was the battle of Marengo fought, and with what result?
What great victory did Moreau gain over the Austrians?
Give the date of the "Treaty of Luneville," and state its leading features.
What narrow escape had Napoleon about this time?
To whom was the attempt attributed, and what did the suspicion lead to?
What celebrated "Order" was now instituted?
With what object?
Name some other great changes proposed by Napoleon.
What was the effect of the restoration of the Sunday?
What was the next step taken by Napoleon towards monarchical power?
By whom was he opposed?
To whom did he appeal, and with what result?
State the object and character of the "Code Napoléon."
What was the condition of France at this time?
Mention the leading parties in the conspiracy now formed to overthrow the First Consul.
To what great crime did this lead on the part of Buonaparte?
How did Talleyrand characterize it?
What did he mean by the phrase?
What effect was produced by this crime in Europe?
On what day did Napoleon assume the title of Emperor?
What was his first step after his elevation?
What great coalition was now formed against Napoleon?
What scheme did Napoleon then contemplate in relation to England?
What provision was made for its accomplishment, and how was it defeated?
Name the campaign now entered upon.
Mention the number of troops employed.
On what day was the great victory of Trafalgar obtained?
At what cost to the English?
With what political results?
What honours were awarded to Nelson?
Give the date of the battle of Austerlitz.
What was its political effect?
Give the date of the "Treaty of Presburg."
How was Mr. Pitt affected by the news?
Mention the day of his death, his age, and his last words.
How long did Mr. Fox survive his great rival?
Give the date of the battle of Jena.
What was its political effect?

How did Napoleon follow up his victories?
From what city were the decrees against British commerce issued?
Give the date of the battle of Eylau.
Who were the antagonists of Buonaparte on this occasion?
What was the effect of the battle?
Where, and under what circumstances was the "Peace of Tilsit" concluded?
What effect had this treaty on Poland?
Name some of the labors of Buonaparte in France after the conclusion of peace.
What was the tendency of all his reforms?
To what extent did the family of Napoleon share in his power?
What led to the Spanish war?
Who was the great hero of that contest?
Did Spain fall without a struggle?
What celebrated defence was made by the Spaniards?
At what period did Sir Arthur Wellesley first land in Portugal?
Who was despatched to oppose him?
What battle was now fought?
What distinguished general was killed in the moment of victory?
Give the date of the battle of Wagram.
What great mistake did Napoleon now make?
In what year did this occur?
What object had Napoleon in view?
What view did the Emperor Alexander take of it?
Give the date of the marriage of Napoleon with Maria Louisa?
What was the domestic character of the match?
In what respects did Maria Louisa differ from Josephine?
Mention a remark of Walter Scott on this difference.
Describe the extent of the French armies in Spain.
State the amount and character of the allied forces.
What was the point of resistance?
Mention a great battle gained by Wellington.
What was the general character of the campaign of 1812?
Name the principal fortresses that were taken from the French.
What great undertaking did Napoleon now contemplate?
What supposable motives had he for the invasion of Russia?
Mention the numbers of the opposing forces?
On what day was the Niemen crossed?
By what time was Napoleon at Wilna?
What course did Alexander take?
Where was the first great battle fought?

What was the character of the conflict at Borodino?
On what day was Moscow reached, and what was then the condition of the French army?
Describe the burning of Moscow.
What was the character of the retreat?
How many horses died in one week, and what was done with their remains?
Describe the passage of the Beresina.
How many of the vast host of invaders again reached Smolensko?
What course did Napoleon now take?
Enumerate the losses of the campaign.
What was the immediate effect of this calamity?
How did the campaign of 1813 open?
Which of the German Princes remained true to Napoleon?
Where did he establish his head quarters?
What battle was about this time fought in Spain, and with what result?
What forces had Napoleon collected on the line of the Elbe?
When was the battle of Dresden fought, and what celebrated commander was then killed?
Give the date of the battle of Leipsic, and the numbers engaged.
What was the effect of this battle?
Of the four hundred thousand men engaged by Napoleon in the campaign, how many recrossed the Rhine?
On what day did the allied forces cross the river and invade France?
By what day were they encamped on the heights of Montmartre?
What offer was made to Napoleon at the conference of Chatillon?
To what place did he now retire?
On what day did he abdicate?
What became of Maria Louisa?
To what island was he allowed to retire, and under what conditions?
Give the date of the death of Josephine.
On what day was the "Peace of Paris" signed?
What conditions were enforced?
How did the English people treat Wellington and his generals?
What unexpected event now astonished Europe?
Give the date of Napoleon's embarkation from Elba.
What circumstances favoured this enterprise?
What was the conduct of the French marshals?
What measures were adopted by the European Powers in consequence of his return?
What forces did Napoleon accumulate?

Where did the allied forces unite?—What were their numbers? and under what generals?
What plan did Napoleon attempt?
Give the date of the battle of Waterloo.
On what day did the Allied Powers re-enter Paris?
What course did Napoleon adopt, and what was his ultimate fate?
What lessons may be learned from his history?
Upon what conditions did the Allied Sovereigns now insist?
Mention the destination of some of the principal works of art.

CHAPTER XXIX.

EUROPE, FROM THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA TO THE FALL OF THE BOURBONS.

Name the estimated cost to England of the wars with Napoleon.
When was the Congress of Vienna held?
How was Europe then re-arranged?
What was the Holy Alliance?
What was the first effect of peace on commerce?
When and by whom was Algiers taken, and what results followed?
Who was the Princess Charlotte, and when did she die?
What led to the trial of Queen Caroline?
How did it end? and under what circumstances did the Queen die?
What was the Cato Street Conspiracy?
Give the dates of the death of Napoleon and of Lord Castlereagh.
What were the results of the commercial panic of 1825?
When did Mr. Canning become Premier?
By whom and when was Catholic Emancipation effected?
Sketch the character of Daniel O'Connell.
When were the Test Acts repealed?
What was the character of George IV.?
Give the date of the death of the Duc de Berri and of Louis XVIII.
What was the character of the Polignac Ordinances?
What was the result of the Revolution of the three days in Paris?
How was Belgium affected?
What was the state of Italy generally from 1815 to 1820?
Who were the Carbonari?
What Popes reigned from 1815 to 1830?
What was the political state of Spain from 1815 to 1820?
What were the grievances of the Spanish colonists?
Give the dates of the independence of the Spanish American States.
Recite Mr. Canning's speech at Plymouth.
Sketch the history of Simon Bolivar.

When did John VI. of Portugal go to Brazil?
What led to his return to Portugal?
How did Brazil become an empire?
What followed the usurpation of Don Miguel?
What course did Russia take after 1815?
Describe the character of the Emperor Alexander.
When did Nicholas come to the Throne, and what occurrence marked the event?
What was the state of Poland under Alexander?
When did the great Polish Rebellion break out?
How did it terminate?
What is meant by the term Pan-Slavism?
What led to the Greek Revolution?
When and where were the Mamelukes massacred?
In what year was the independence of the Morea proclaimed?
What great massacre followed?
Name the place and give the date of the death of Lord Byron.
What led to the battle of Navarino, and what were its results?
Give the date of the peace of Adrianople.
How and by whom has Greece been governed since that time?

CHAPTER XXX.

EUROPE, FROM THE ACCESSION OF LOUIS PHILIPPE TO THE YEAR OF REVOLUTIONS.

What was the early history of Louis Philippe?
With what character did he ascend the French Throne?
Describe the state of parties in France from 1830 to 1840.
What attempts on France were made by Louis Napoleon, and with what results?
When and by whom was the body of Napoleon brought to France?
When and how did the Duke of Orleans die?
What was the character of the Ministry of M. Guizot?
What were the Spanish marriages?
When did civil war again break out in Spain?
What were its causes and result?
Why was the Spanish Legion raised, and by whom?
Give the character of Espartero.
When was the English Reform Bill introduced, and by whom?
What events marked the struggle for its adoption?
When did it become law?
Name some of the chief measures of the Reformed Parliament.
What was the character of the New Poor Law Bill?

When was Negro Slavery abolished, and under what conditions?
What is the true remedy for the evils of the Slave Trade?
What course has England taken on this subject?
When and by whom was the Municipal Corporation Bill passed?
Give the date of the death of William IV., and describe his character.
When did the Canadian Rebellion break out, and what has been the result?
Give the date of the marriage of the Queen.
When and how did the war with Affghanistan commence?
Describe the retreat from Cabul, and say what led to it.
How was the calamity avenged?
When was Scinde annexed to the British Crown?
When and under what circumstances was Hong Kong ceded to the British?
What led to the war with the Sikhs?
Name the principal battles that were fought, and the commanders.
When was the Punjaub annexed?
When was the Penny Postage Act passed, and what have been its effects?
What was the Anti-Corn Law League, and who were its chief promoters?
When were the Australian colonies founded?
Describe the general character of Sir Robert Peel's policy.
When did the railway mania commence, and what were its characteristics?
Name the sums required, and the cost of litigation.
What were the moral effects of the mania?
What led to the two invasions of Turkey by Egypt, and what was the result?
Name the Presidents of the U.S. from the time of Washington to 1846.
Give the dates of the formation of the several States.
In what wars has America engaged?
Describe the political parties of the States.
What was the condition of England in 1846-7?
Describe the Irish famine and its results.
What was the war of the Sonderbund in Switzerland, and when did it break out?
How did it end?
How did the Reform movement in France commence?
What led to the outbreak of 1848?
What were its immediate consequences?
How did the Duchess of Orleans act?
Describe the sack of the Tuileries.
What was the character of the Provisional Government?

How and by whom was the attempt made to organize labor?
What were the further consequences of the Revolution?
By whom was the struggle in the streets conducted?
What led to the death of the Archbishop of Paris?
How was Louis Napoleon raised to the Presidency?
What was the general state of Europe at this time?
Who was Pope, and what was his character?
What led to re-action?
How did this affect Northern Italy?
By whom was Venice defended, and for how long?
What was the conduct and character of the King of Naples?
By what *sobriquet* was he afterwards known, and why was it given?
What led to the flight of the Pope?
What was the state of Rome during the Triumvirate?
Where did the French land, and for what purpose?
What was the fate of Rome and the Liberals?
Who was Mazzini, and what principle does he advocate?
When was the battle of Novara fought, and with what result?
What led to the outbreak in Vienna?
What was the character of the Hungarian war?
Name the principal leaders, and describe their fate.
When and how did the present Emperor of Austria come to the Throne?
What was the cause of the war between Prussia and Denmark?
What was the Frankfort Parliament, and how was it constituted?
What was its character, and how long did it last?
What were the objects of the Zollverein league?
When and how did Chartism in England destroy itself?
What was the character of the last Irish Rebellion?
What are the causes of the safety of England?

CHAPTER XXXI.

EUROPE, FROM THE RISE OF LOUIS NAPOLEON TO THE PEACE OF VILLAFRANCA.

What was the effect of the election of Louis Napoleon?
When and where did Louis Philippe die?
What occasioned the death of Sir Robert Peel?—give date.
Describe the Papal usurpation and its result.
When were the Jews first admitted to Parliament?
What was the origin of the Great Exhibition in 1851?
Mention the size and character of the building, and give the number of visitors?

By whom was it opened, and under what circumstances?
What was it the result of?
When were steam-boats first introduced?
In what year did the first steamer cross the Atlantic?
What problems will the Great Eastern eventually solve?
Mention its dimensions, tonnage, and accommodation.
What has it cost, and what could it do?
When and by whom were locomotive engines first introduced?
What event marked the opening of the first railway?
What may probably be the result of railway enterprise?
When and by whom was the electric telegraph invented?
To what extent has it come into use?
What are submarine telegraphs?
Where was gold first discovered in our own day?
From whence was it obtained prior to this discovery, and in what quantities?
What was the first effect of the discovery?
When was gold first found in Australia, and where?
In what quantities has it since been obtained, and where?
What have been the immediate results?
What may probably be the future consequences?
What led to the Coup d'Etat in France?
How was it accomplished?
How and when was Louis Napoleon elected President for ten years?
When did he assume the title of Emperor?
To whom was he married, and when?
When did the French Emperor visit England?
What led to the second war with the Burmese, and what was the result?
Give the date of the death of the Duke of Wellington, and mention some of his leading characteristics.
Describe the funeral of the Duke, and say where he was buried.
What events led to the Crimean war?
When and where was the Turkish fleet destroyed, and under what circumstances?
Where did the Turks distinguish themselves?
What were the chief difficulties of the army before landing at Balaclava?
When was the battle of the Alma fought, and what followed?
Describe the charge at Balaclava.
What was the great characteristic of the fight at Inkermann?
Give the dates of the three battles.
When did the great hurricane take place, and what consequences followed?

When and how was the Mamelon taken?
Give the date of the death of Lord Raglan.
When and how was Sebastopol finally captured?
What other events signalized the war?
When did the Czar Nicholas die?
What was the condition of India from 1849 to 1856?
What great improvements were effected during this time?
When and by whom was Oude annexed to the British Crown?
What opinions were formed on the annexation?
How did the war with Persia commence, and when did it end?
What were the first indications of discontent in the Bengal army?
What were the true grievances of the Hindoo?
Mention the relative strength of the European and native soldiery.
When and where did the mutiny break out?
What were the consequences?
Whither did the rebels proceed?
Name the chief events at Delhi.
To what extent was the electric telegraph found useful?
What was the state of the Punjaub?
Who defended Lucknow during the siege?
How, when, and by whom was it relieved?
What events led to the massacre at Cawnpore?
When was Delhi re-taken?
How did the mutiny come to an end?
What changes in the Government of India followed?
What occasioned the war with China in 1856?
Has the treaty of Tien-tsin been carried out?
By whom and when was a treaty made with Japan?
What events led to the Italian war?
Describe the attempt of Orsini and others?
When were unfriendly feelings to Austria first manifested by Louis Napoleon?
When did the Austrians first cross the Ticino?
Give the date and place of the first battle.
When was the battle of Magenta fought?
Describe the battle of Solferino.
Give the date of the peace of Villafranca.

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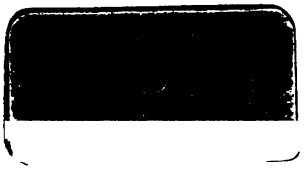
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